### Graph Algorithms

### Graphs

- A graph G = (V, E)
  - $\blacksquare$  V = set of vertices
  - $\blacksquare$  E = set of edges = subset of V × V
  - Thus  $|E| = O(|V|^2)$

### **Graph Variations**

- Variations:
  - A connected graph has a path from every vertex to every other
  - In an *undirected graph:* 
    - $\circ$  Edge (u,v) = edge (v,u)
  - In a *directed* graph:
    - $\circ$  Edge (u,v) goes from vertex u to vertex v, notated u $\rightarrow$ v

### **Graph Variations**

- More variations:
  - A weighted graph associates weights with either the edges or the vertices
    - o E.g., a road map: edges might be weighted w/ distance

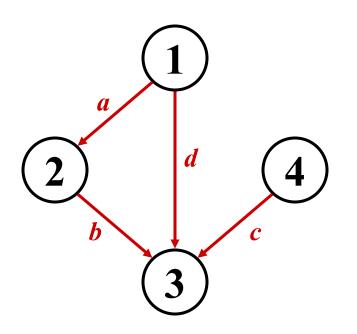
### Graphs

- We will typically express running times in terms of |E| and |V|
  - If  $|E| \approx |V|^2$  the graph is *dense*
  - If  $|E| \approx |V|$  the graph is *sparse*
- If you know you are dealing with dense or sparse graphs, different data structures may make sense

### Representing Graphs

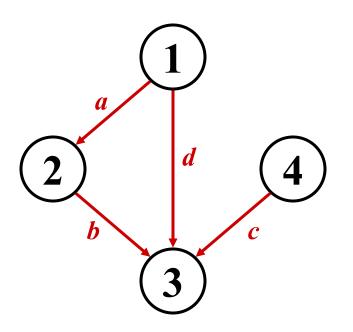
- Assume  $V = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$
- An *adjacency matrix* represents the graph as a  $n \times n$  matrix A:
  - A[i,j] = 1 if edge  $(i,j) \in E$  (or weight of edge) = 0 if edge  $(i,j) \notin E$

#### • Example:



A	1	2	3	4
1				
2				
3			??	
4				

#### • Example:



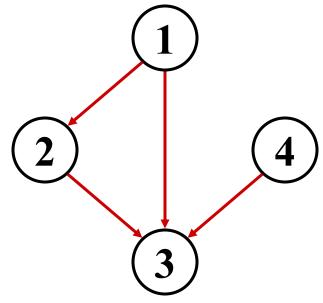
A	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	1	0
2	0	0	1	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	1	0

- How much storage does the adjacency matrix require?
- A:  $O(V^2)$
- What is the minimum amount of storage needed by an adjacency matrix representation of an undirected graph with 4 vertices?
- A: 6 bits
  - Undirected graph → matrix is symmetric
  - No self-loops  $\rightarrow$  don't need diagonal

- The adjacency matrix is a dense representation
  - Usually too much storage for large graphs
  - But can be very efficient for small graphs
- Most large interesting graphs are sparse
  - For this reason the *adjacency list* is often a more appropriate respresentation

## **Graphs: Adjacency List**

- Adjacency list: for each vertex  $v \in V$ , store a list of vertices adjacent to v
- Example:
  - $Adj[1] = \{2,3\}$
  - $Adj[2] = {3}$
  - $Adj[3] = \{\}$
  - $Adj[4] = {3}$
- Variation: can also keep a list of edges coming *into* vertex



### Graphs: Adjacency List

- How much storage is required?
  - The *degree* of a vertex v = # incident edges
    - o Directed graphs have in-degree, out-degree
  - For directed graphs, # of items in adjacency lists is  $\Sigma$  out-degree(v) = |E| takes  $\Theta(V + E)$  storage
  - For undirected graphs, # items in adj lists is  $\Sigma$  degree(v) = 2 |E| also  $\Theta(V + E)$  storage
- So: Adjacency lists take O(V+E) storage

### **Graph Searching**

- Given: a graph G = (V, E), directed or undirected
- Goal: methodically explore every vertex and every edge
- Ultimately: build a tree on the graph
  - Pick a vertex as the root
  - Choose certain edges to produce a tree
  - Note: might also build a *forest* if graph is not connected

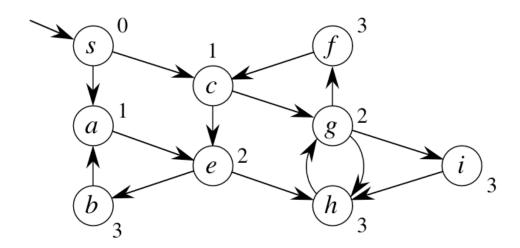
### Traverse of Graph

- Given graph G = (V, E)
- Given a source node  $s \in V$ 
  - Visit all nodes in *V* reachable from *s*

- Need an efficient strategy to achieve that
  - BFS: Breadth-first search

#### Intuition

- Starting from source node s,
  - Spread a wavefront to visit other nodes
- Example
  - Imagine given a tree
  - What if a graph?



#### Intuition cont.

- $\delta(u, v)$ :
  - Distance (smallest # edges) from node u to v in G
- Goal:
  - Start from source s, first visit those nodes of distance 1 from s, then 2, and so on.
  - More formally: BFS
    - Input: Graph G=(V, E) and source node s ∈ V
    - Output:  $\delta$  (s, u) for every  $u \in V$ 
      - $\delta$  (s,u) =  $\infty$  if u is unreachable from s
  - Assume adjacency list representation for G

#### **Breadth-First Search**

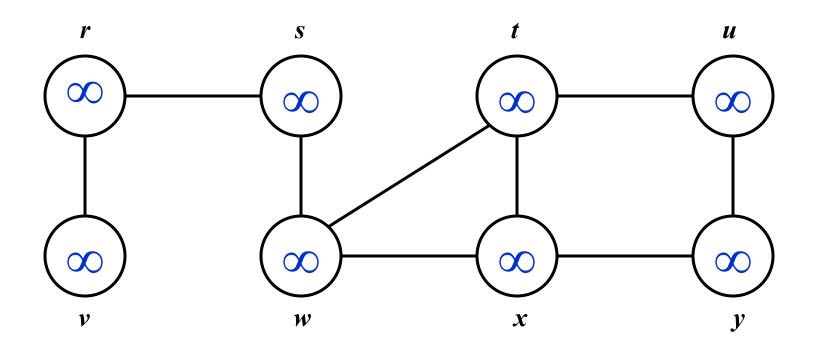
- "Explore" a graph, turning it into a tree
  - One vertex at a time
  - Expand frontier of explored vertices across the breadth of the frontier
- Builds a tree over the graph
  - Pick a *source vertex* to be the root
  - Find ("discover") its children, then their children, etc.

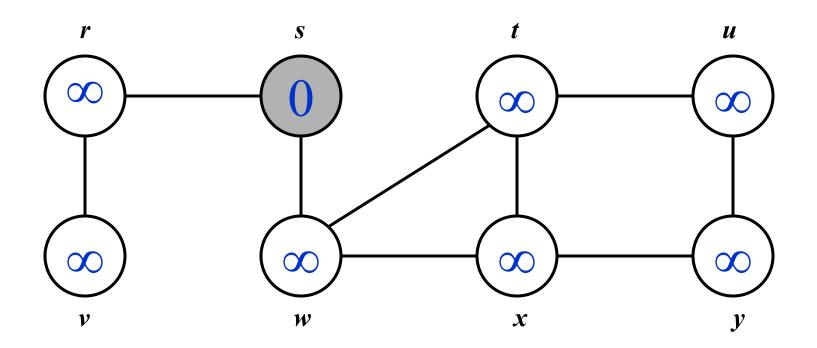
#### **Breadth-First Search**

- Will associate vertex "colors" to guide the algorithm
  - White vertices have not been discovered
    - All vertices start out white
  - Grey vertices are discovered but not fully explored
    - They may be adjacent to white vertices
  - Black vertices are discovered and fully explored
    - They are adjacent only to black and gray vertices
- Explore vertices by scanning adjacency list of grey vertices

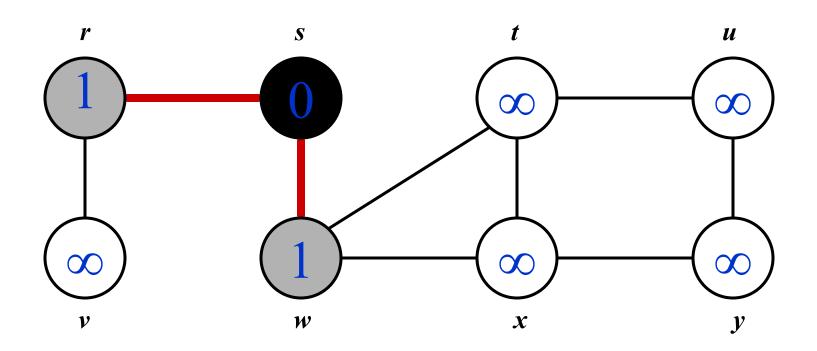
#### **Breadth-First Search**

```
BFS(G, s) {
    initialize vertices;
    Q = \{s\}; // Q is a queue; initialize to s
    while (Q not empty) {
        u = RemoveTop(Q);
        for each v \in u->adj {
            if (v->color == WHITE)
                 v->color = GREY;
                 v->d = u->d + 1; What does v->d represent?
                 v->p = u;
                                      What does v->p represent?
                 Enqueue(Q, v);
        u \rightarrow color = BLACK;
```

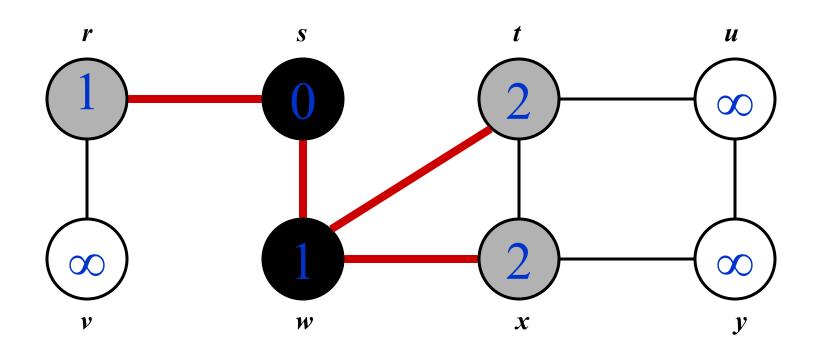




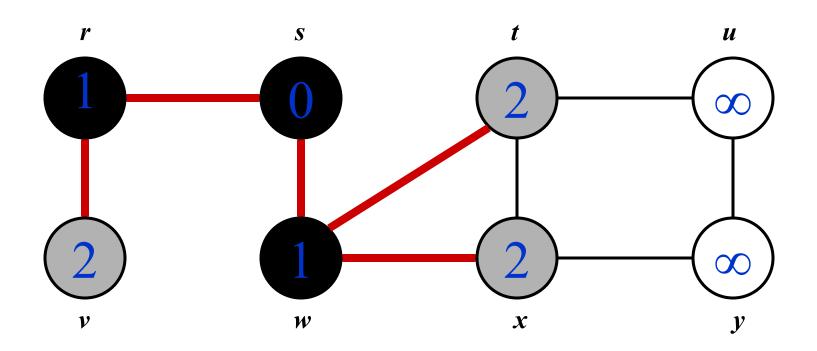
**Q:** s



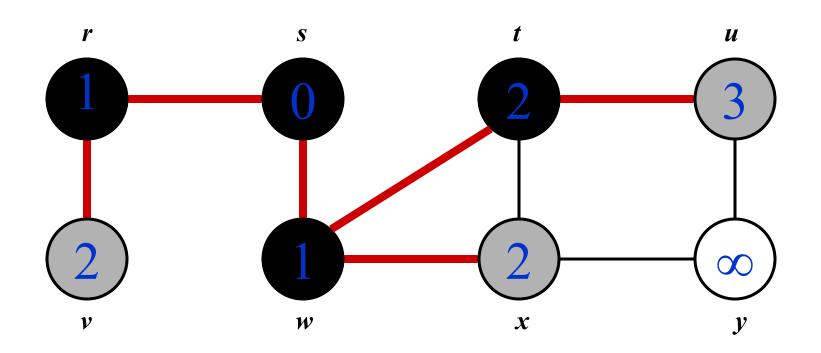
Q: | w | r



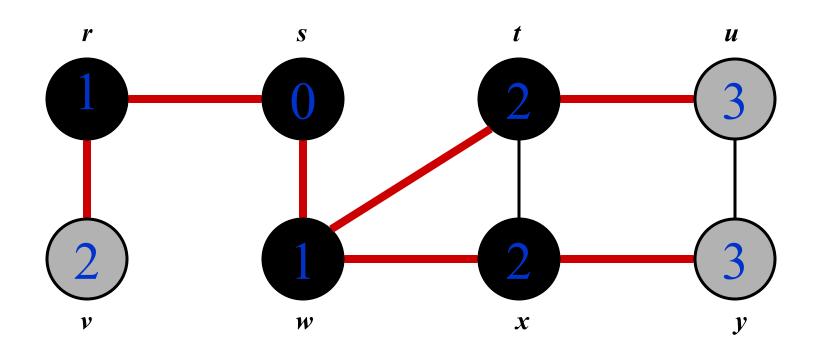
 $Q: \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline r & t & x \\ \hline \end{array}$ 



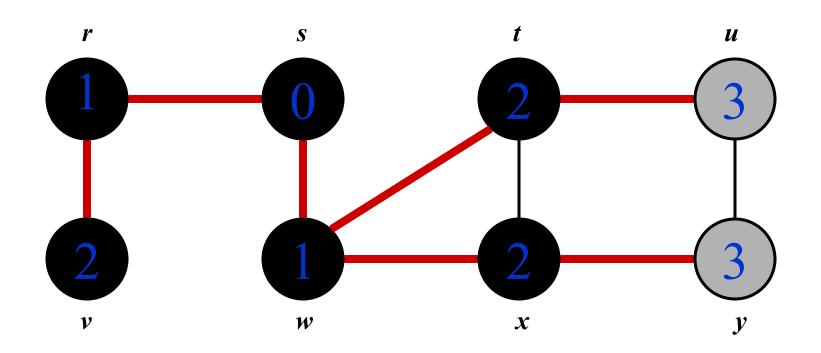
Q: t x v



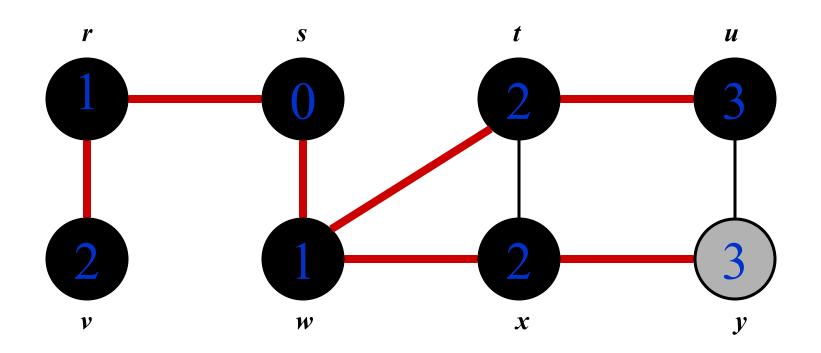
Q: x v u



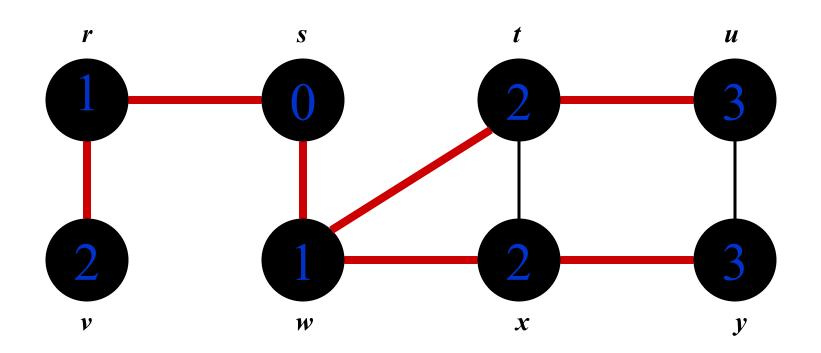
Q: v u y



*Q*: *u y* 



**Q**: y



Q: Ø

## **BFS: The Code Again**

```
BFS(G, s) {
       initialize vertices; \longleftarrow Touch every vertex: O(V)
       0 = \{s\};
       while (Q not empty) {
           u = RemoveTop(Q); \leftarrow u = every vertex, but only once
           for each v \in u-adj \{
                if (v->color == WHITE)
So v = every \ vertex \ v -> color = GREY;
                v->d = u->d + 1;
that appears in
some other vert's v->p = u;
                    Enqueue(Q, v);
adjacency list
                                    What will be the running time?
           u \rightarrow color = BLACK;
                                    Total running time: O(V+E)
```

### Breadth-First Search: Properties

- BFS calculates the *shortest-path distance* to the source node
  - Shortest-path distance  $\delta(s,v)$  = minimum number of edges from s to v, or ∞ if v not reachable from s

- BFS builds *breadth-first tree*, in which paths to root represent shortest paths in G
  - Thus can use BFS to calculate shortest path from one vertex to another in O(V+E) time

### Depth-First Search

- *Depth-first search* is another strategy for exploring a graph
  - Explore "deeper" in the graph whenever possible
  - Edges are explored out of the most recently discovered vertex *v* that still has unexplored edges
  - When all of *v*'s edges have been explored, backtrack to the vertex from which *v* was discovered

### Depth-First Search

- Vertices initially colored white
- Then colored gray when discovered
- Then black when finished

### Depth-First Search: The Code

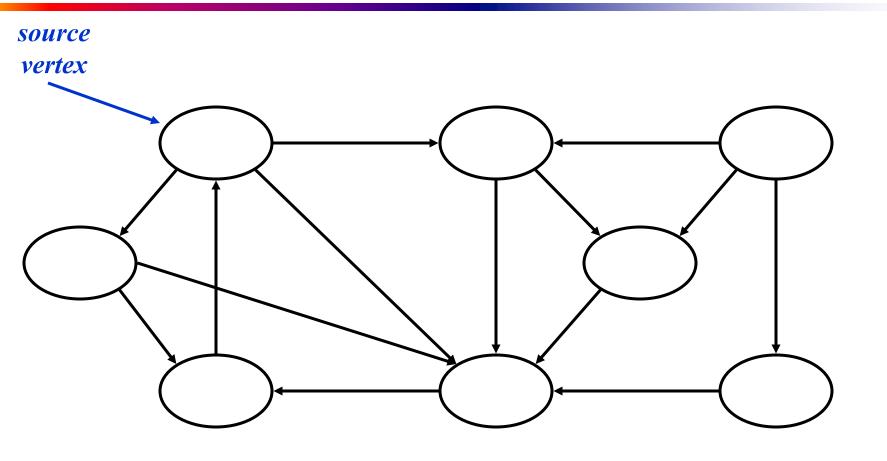
```
DFS(G)
   for each vertex u ∈ G->V
      u->color = WHITE;
   time = 0;
   for each vertex u ∈ G->V
      if (u->color == WHITE)
         DFS Visit(u);
```

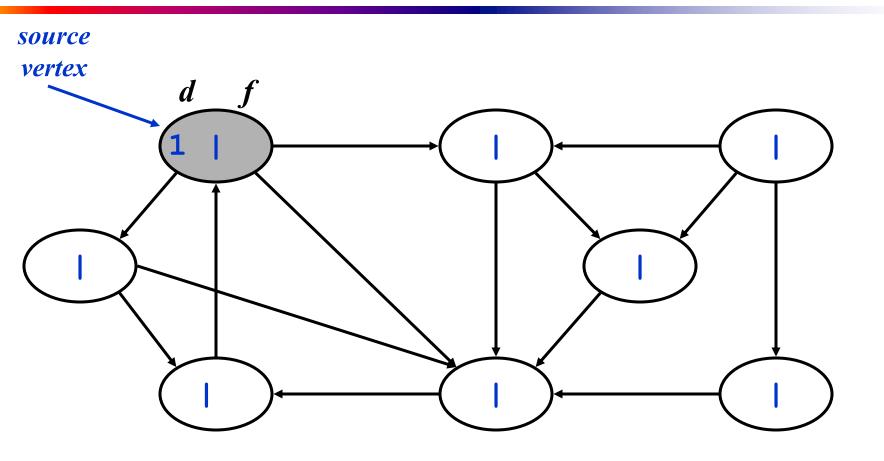
```
DFS Visit(u)
   u->color = GREY;
   time = time+1;
   u->d = time;
   for each v \in u-\lambda dj[]
       if (v->color == WHITE)
          DFS Visit(v);
   u->color = BLACK;
   time = time+1;
   u->f = time;
```

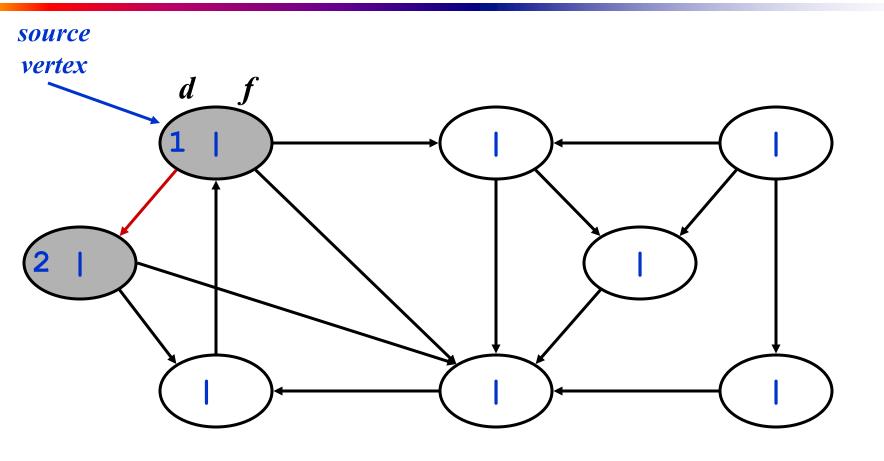
## Depth-First Search: Running Time

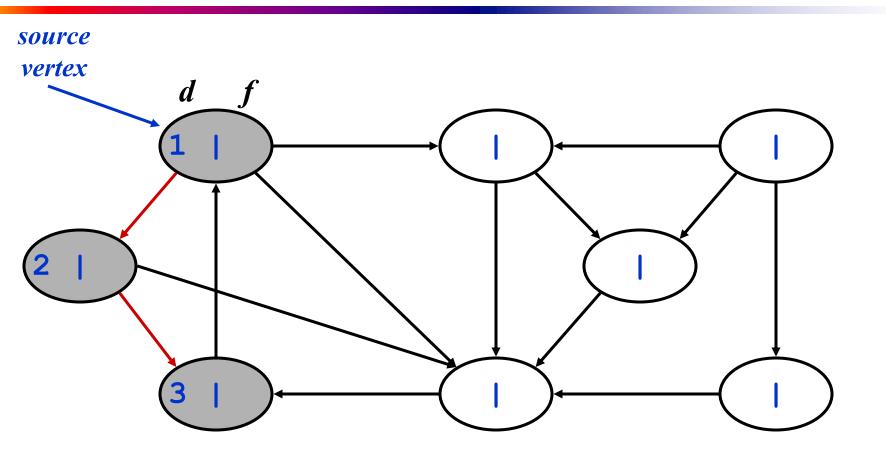
- The loops on lines 1-3 and lines 5-7 of DFS take time  $\Theta(V)$ , exclusive of the time to execute the calls to DFS-VISIT.
- The procedure DFS-VISIT is called exactly once for each vertex v
   □ V , since DFS-VISIT is invoked only on white vertices and the first thing it does is paint the vertex gray.
- During an execution of DFS-VISIT(v), the loop on lines 4-7 is executed |Adj[v]| times. Since the total cost of executing lines 4-7 of DFS-VISIT is  $\Theta(E)$ . The running time of DFS is therefore  $\Theta(V + E)$ .

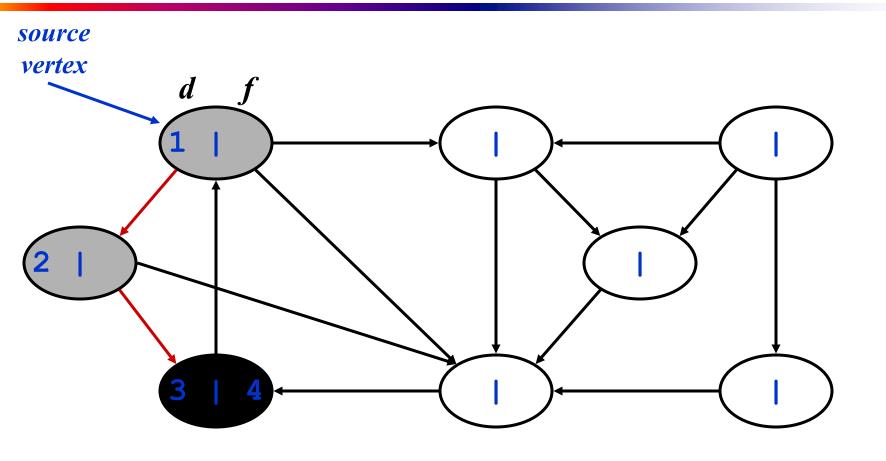
# **DFS Example**

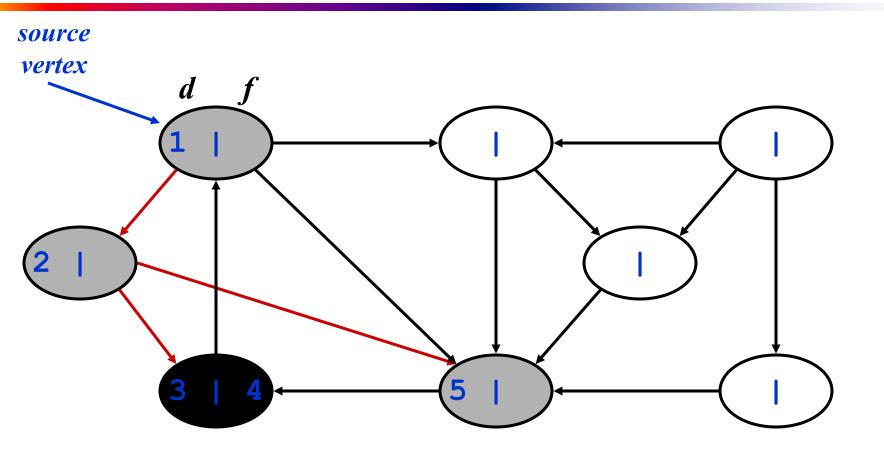


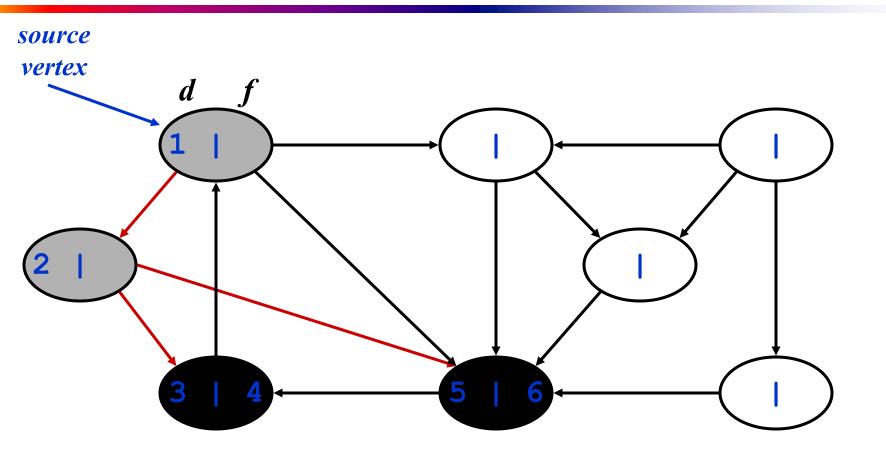


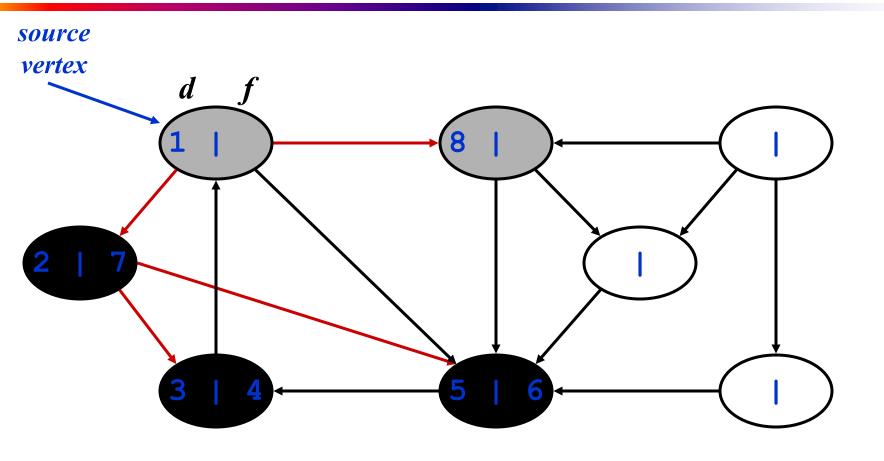


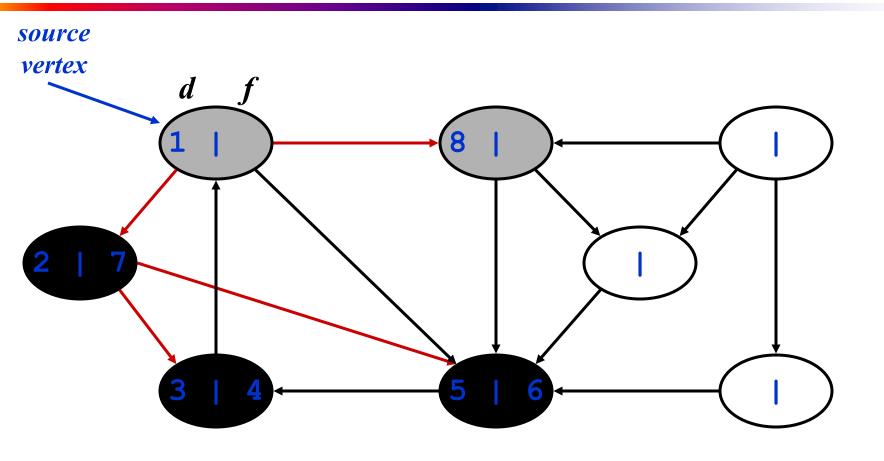


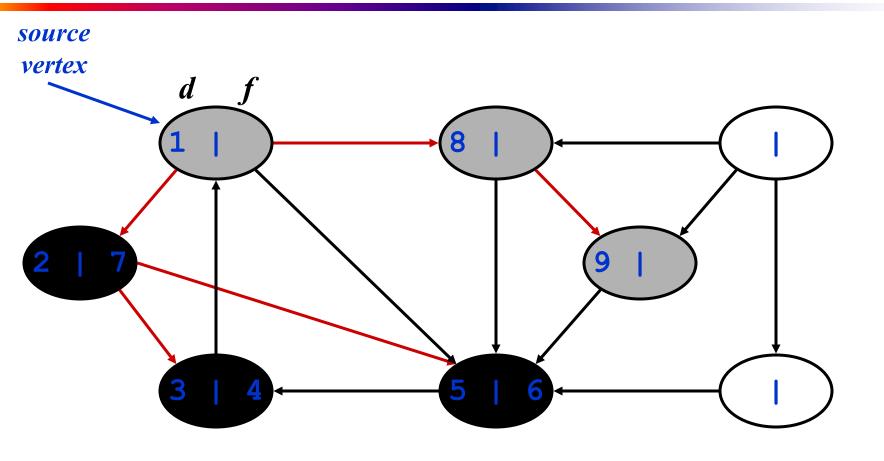


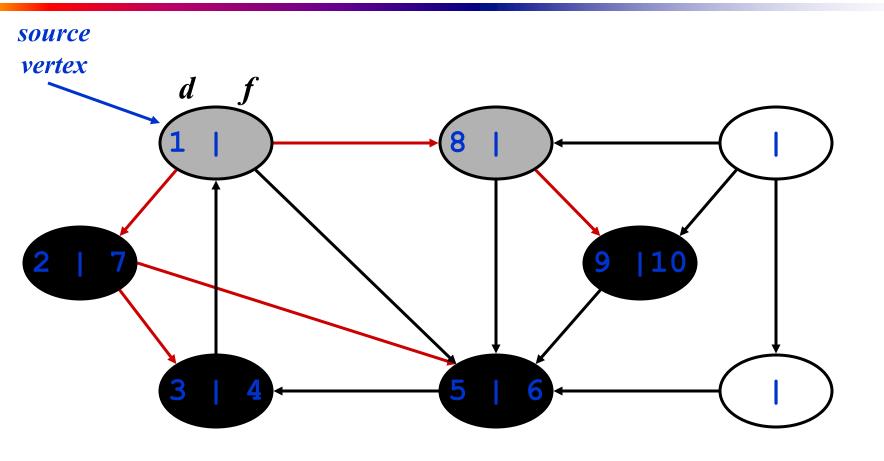


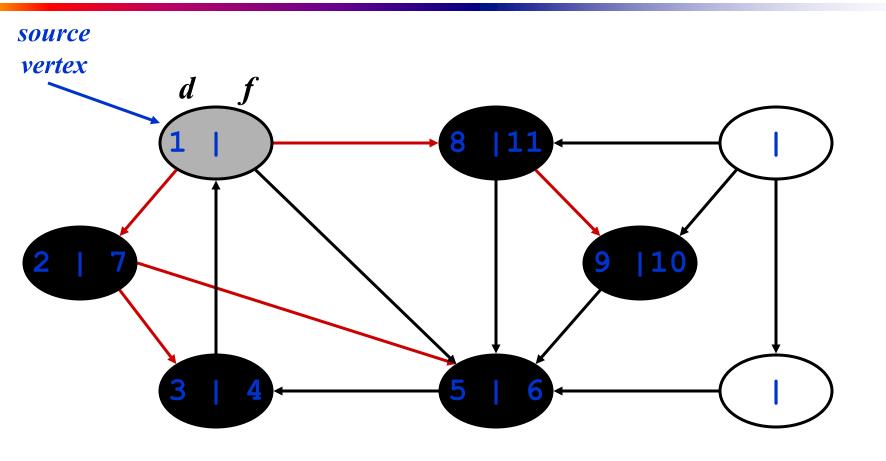


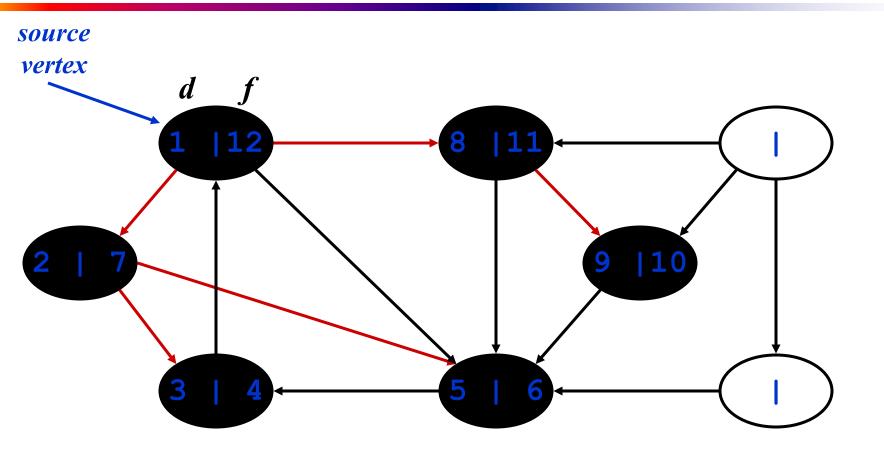


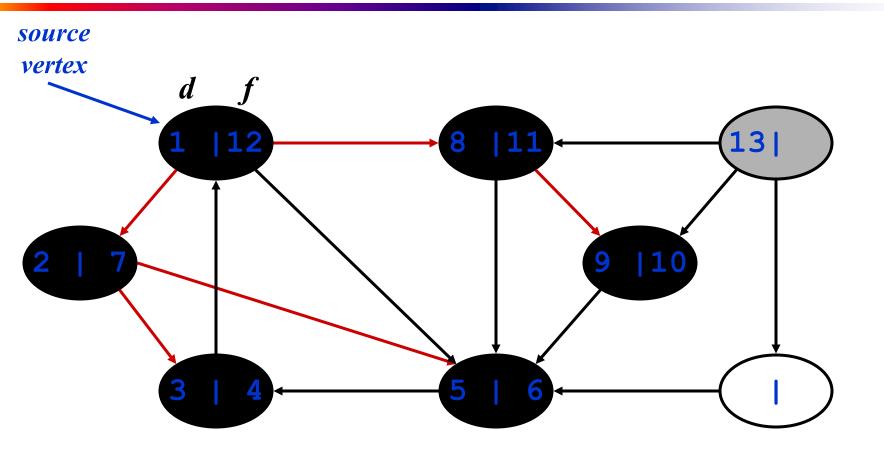


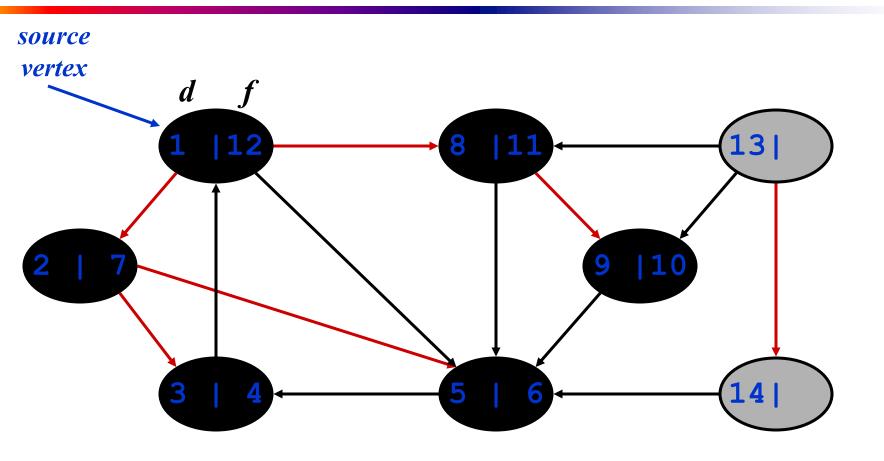


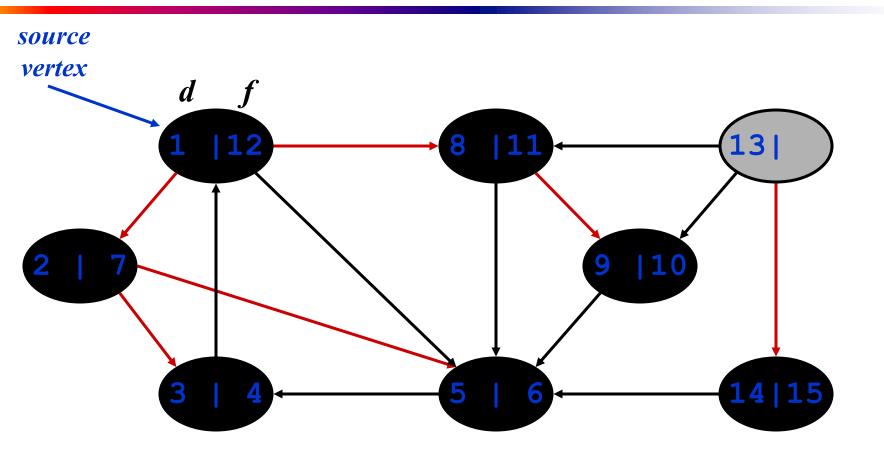


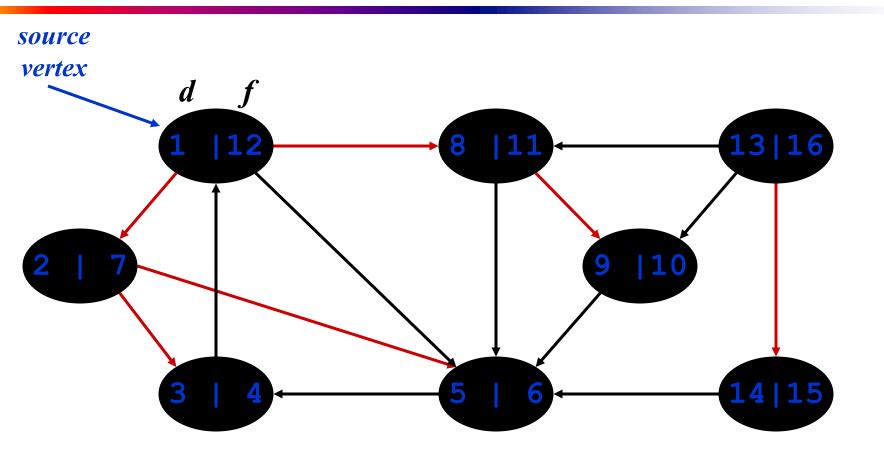






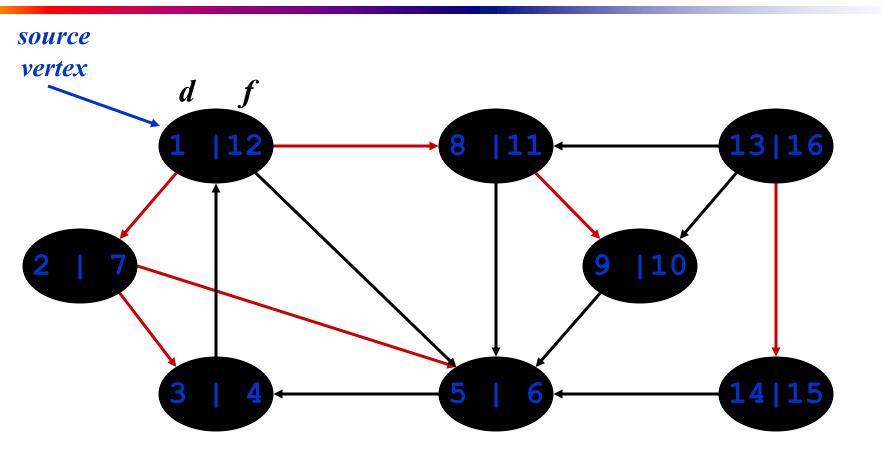






#### DFS: Kinds of edges

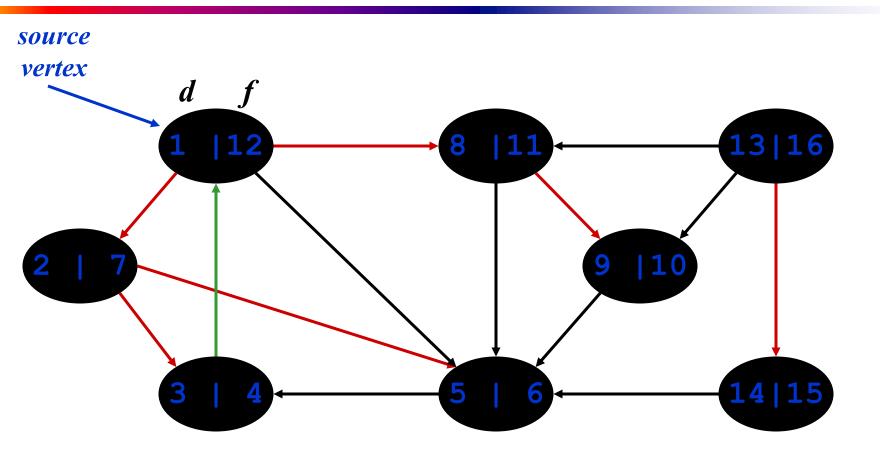
- DFS introduces an important distinction among edges in the original graph:
  - *Tree edge*: encounter new (white) vertex



Tree edges

#### DFS: Kinds of edges

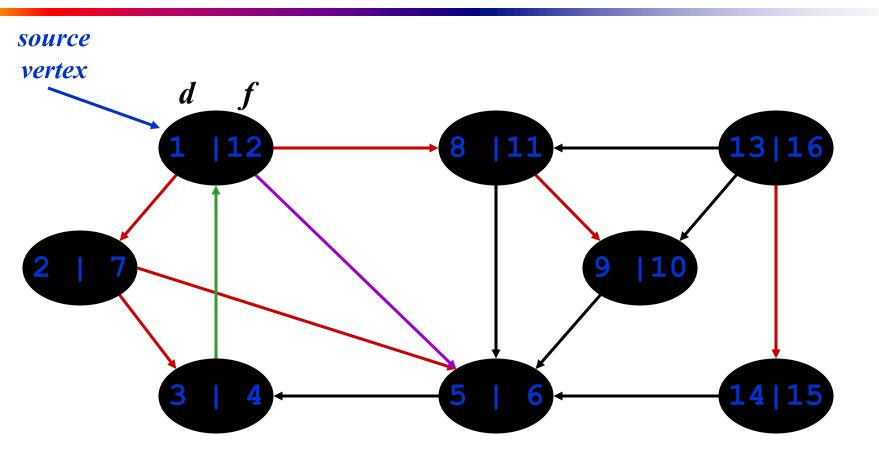
- DFS introduces an important distinction among edges in the original graph:
  - *Tree edge*: encounter new (white) vertex
  - *Back edge*: from descendent to ancestor
    - Encounter a grey vertex (grey to grey)



Tree edges Back edges

#### DFS: Kinds of edges

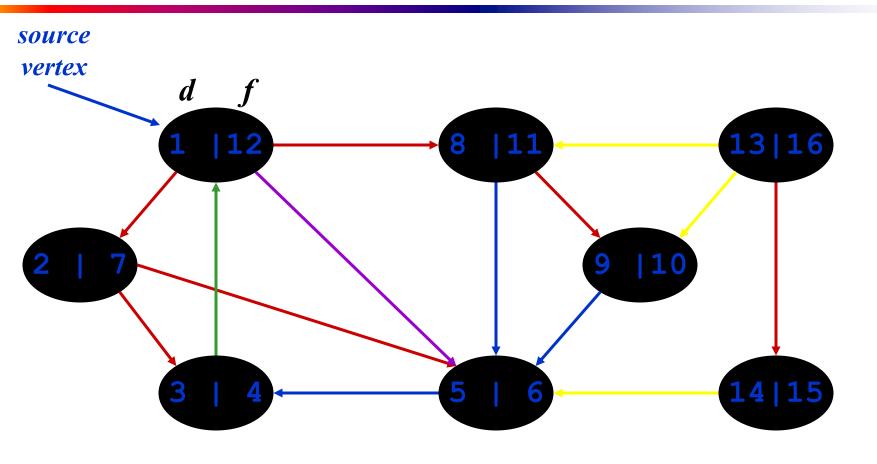
- DFS introduces an important distinction among edges in the original graph:
  - *Tree edge*: encounter new (white) vertex
  - Back edge: from descendent to ancestor
  - Forward edge: from ancestor to descendent
    - Not a tree edge, though
    - From grey node to black node



Tree edges Back edges Forward edges

#### DFS: Kinds of edges

- DFS introduces an important distinction among edges in the original graph:
  - *Tree edge*: encounter new (white) vertex
  - *Back edge*: from descendent to ancestor
  - Forward edge: from ancestor to descendent
  - Cross edge: between a tree or subtrees
    - From a grey node to a black node



Tree edges Back edges Forward edges Cross edges

#### DFS: Kinds of edges

- DFS introduces an important distinction among edges in the original graph:
  - *Tree edge*: encounter new (white) vertex
  - *Back edge*: from descendent to ancestor
  - Forward edge: from ancestor to descendent
  - Cross edge: between a tree or subtrees
- Note: tree & back edges are important; most algorithms don't distinguish forward & cross

### Review: Dynamic Programming

- Summary of the basic idea:
  - Optimal substructure: optimal solution to problem consists of optimal solutions to subproblems
  - Overlapping subproblems: few subproblems in total, many recurring instances of each
  - Solve bottom-up, building a table of solved subproblems that are used to solve larger ones

#### **Greedy Algorithms**

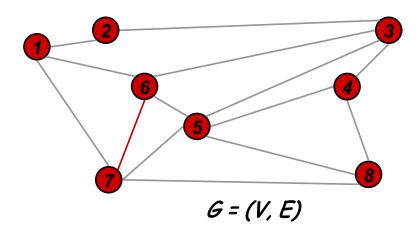
- Like dynamic programming, used to solve optimization problems.
- Problems exhibit optimal substructure (like DP).
- Problems also exhibit the greedy-choice property.
  - When we have a choice to make, make the one that looks best *right now*.
  - Make a locally optimal choice in hope of getting a globally optimal solution.

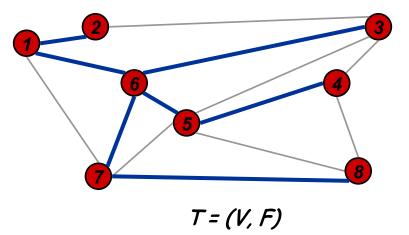
## **Greedy Algorithms**

- A *greedy algorithm* always makes the choice that looks best at the moment
  - The hope: a locally optimal choice will lead to a globally optimal solution
  - For some problems, it works
- Dynamic programming can be overkill; greedy algorithms tend to be easier to code

#### Spanning Tree

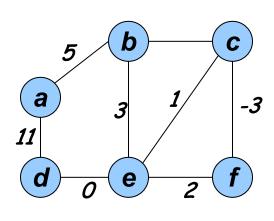
- Spanning tree. Let T = (V, F) be a subgraph of G = (V, E).
- T is a spanning tree of G: T that contains all the vertices of a graph G.
  - T is acyclic and connected.
  - T is connected and has |V| 1 arcs.
  - $\blacksquare$  T is acyclic and has |V| 1 arcs.
  - T is minimally connected: removal of any arc disconnects it.
  - T is maximally acyclic: addition of any arc creates a cycle.
  - T has a unique simple path between every pair of vertices.



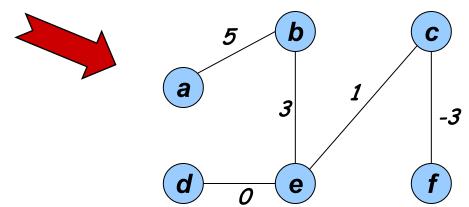


#### Minimum Spanning Trees

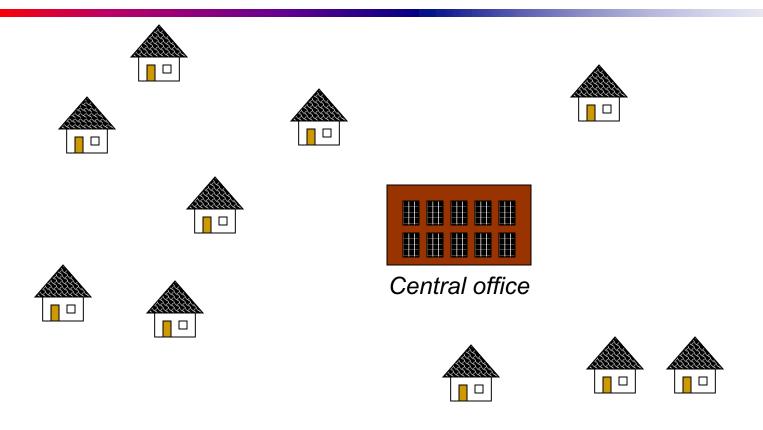
- •A spanning tree for G is a free tree that connects all the vertices in V.
- •The cost of a spanning tree is the sum of the costs of the edges in the tree.



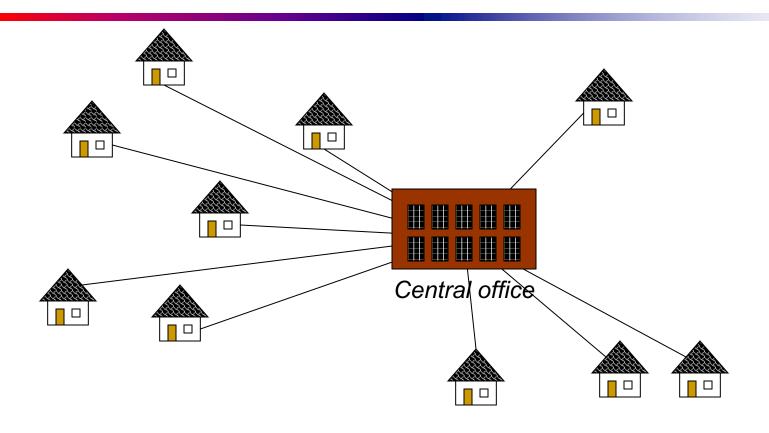
- •Given: a Connected, undirected, weighted graph, G = (V, E) in which each edge (u, v) in E has a cost c (u, v) attached to it.
- -3 •Find: Minimum weight spanning tree, T



#### Problem: Laying Telephone Wire

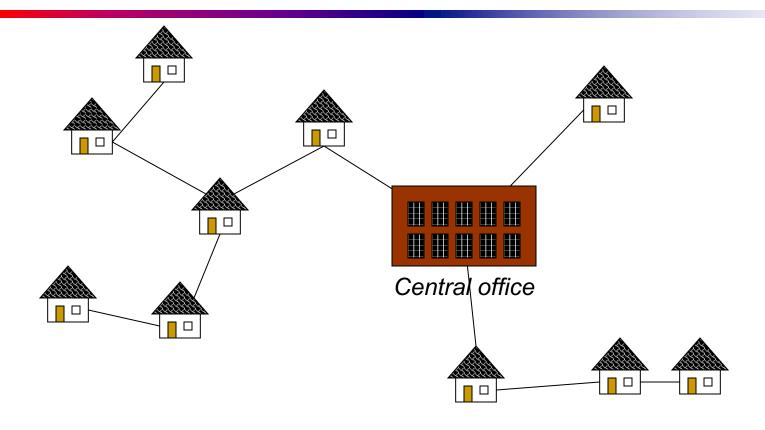


## Wiring: Naïve Approach



Expensive!

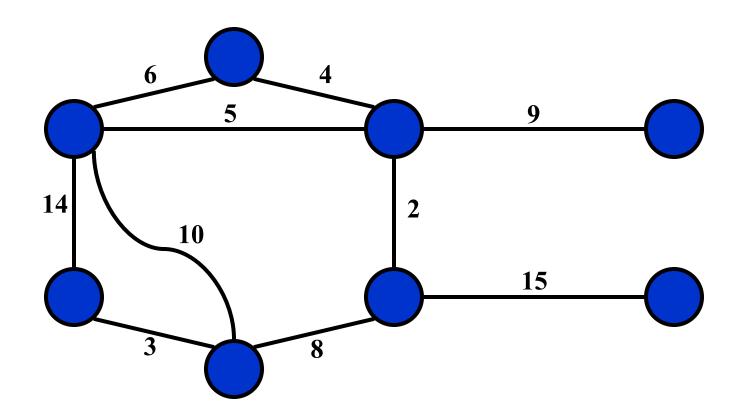
#### Wiring: Better Approach



Minimize the total length of wire connecting the customers

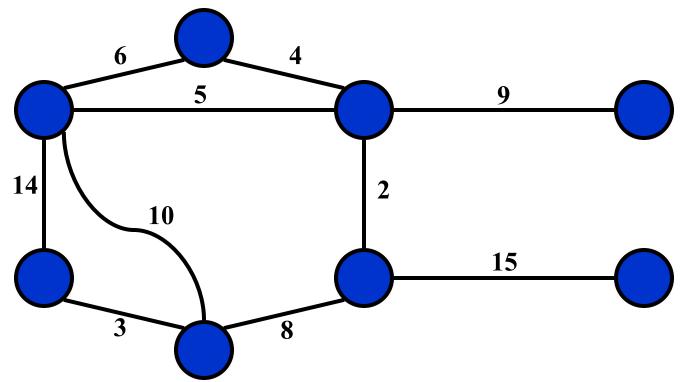
### Minimum Spanning Tree

• Problem: given a connected, undirected, weighted graph:



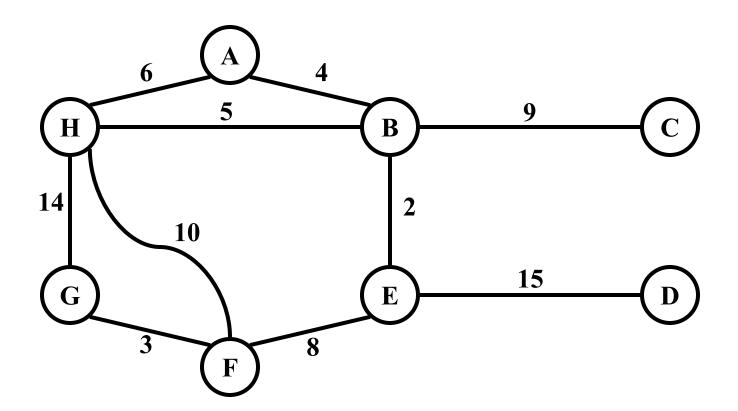
### Minimum Spanning Tree

• Problem: given a connected, undirected, weighted graph, find a *spanning tree* using edges that minimize the total weight

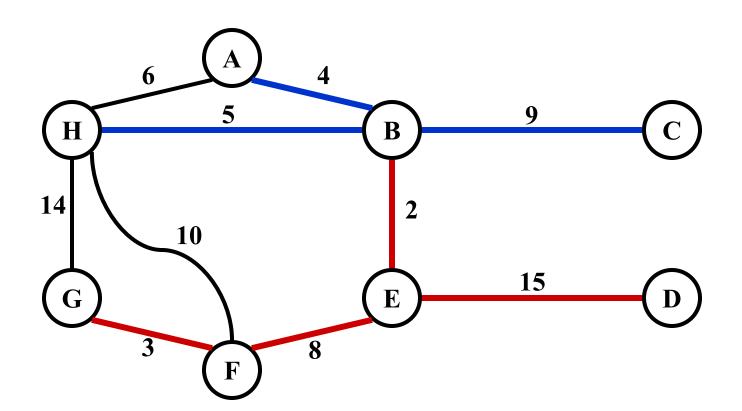


## Minimum Spanning Tree

• Which edges form the minimum spanning tree (MST) of the below graph?



• Answer:



- MSTs satisfy the *optimal substructure* property: an optimal tree is composed of optimal subtrees
  - Let T be an MST of G with an edge (u, v) in the middle
  - Removing (u,v) partitions T into two trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$
  - Claim:  $T_1$  is an MST of  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ , and  $T_2$  is an MST of  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$
  - Proof:  $w(T) = w(u,v) + w(T_1) + w(T_2)$ (There can't be a better tree than  $T_1$  or  $T_2$ , or T would be suboptimal)

- Thm:
  - Let T be MST of G, and let  $A \subseteq T$  be subtree of T
  - Let (u, v) be min-weight edge connecting A to V-A
  - Then  $(u,v) \in T$

- Thm:
  - Let T be MST of G, and let  $A \subseteq T$  be subtree of T
  - Let (u, v) be min-weight edge connecting A to V-A
  - Then  $(u,v) \in T$

```
MST-Prim(G, w, r)
    Q = V[G];
    for each u \in Q
         key[u] = \infty;
    key[r] = 0;
    p[r] = NULL;
    while (Q not empty)
         u = ExtractMin(Q);
         for each v \in Adj[u]
              if (v \in Q \text{ and } w(u,v) < \text{key}[v])
                   p[v] = u;
                   key[v] = w(u,v);
```

```
MST-Prim(G, w, r)
    Q = V[G];
    for each u \in Q
                          14
         key[u] = \infty;
                                   10
                                                     15
    key[r] = 0;
    p[r] = NULL;
    while (Q not empty)
         u = ExtractMin(Q); Run on example graph
         for each v \in Adj[u]
              if (v \in Q \text{ and } w(u,v) < \text{key}[v])
                  p[v] = u;
                  key[v] = w(u,v);
```

```
MST-Prim(G, w, r)
    Q = V[G];
    for each u \in Q
                           14
         key[u] = \infty;
                                    10
                                                      15
    key[r] = 0;
    p[r] = NULL;
                                      \infty
    while (Q not empty)
         u = ExtractMin(Q); Run on example graph
         for each v \in Adj[u]
              if (v \in Q \text{ and } w(u,v) < \text{key}[v])
                   p[v] = u;
                   key[v] = w(u,v);
```

```
MST-Prim(G, w, r)
    Q = V[G];
     for each u \in Q
                            14
         key[u] = \infty;
                                    10
                                                       15
     key[r] = 0;
    p[r] = NULL;
                                      \infty
    while (Q not empty)
                                Pick a start vertex r
         u = ExtractMin(Q);
          for each v \in Adj[u]
              if (v \in Q \text{ and } w(u,v) < \text{key}[v])
                   p[v] = u;
                   key[v] = w(u,v);
```

```
MST-Prim(G, w, r)
     Q = V[G];
     for each u \in Q
                            14
         key[u] = \infty;
                                     10
                                                        15
     key[r] = 0;
    p[r] = NULL;
                                       \infty
     while (Q not empty)
         u = ExtractMin(Q); Red vertices have been removed from Q
          for each v \in Adj[u]
               if (v \in Q \text{ and } w(u,v) < \text{key}[v])
                   p[v] = u;
                   key[v] = w(u,v);
```

```
MST-Prim(G, w, r)
    Q = V[G];
     for each u \in Q
                            14
         key[u] = \infty;
                                    10
                                                       15
    key[r] = 0;
    p[r] = NULL;
    while (Q not empty)
         u = ExtractMin(Q); Red arrows indicate parent pointers
         for each v \in Adj[u]
              if (v \in Q \text{ and } w(u,v) < \text{key}[v])
                   p[v] = u;
                   key[v] = w(u,v);
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```

```
MST-Prim(G, w, r)
                                                      9
    Q = V[G];
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                           14
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                                   10
                                                      15
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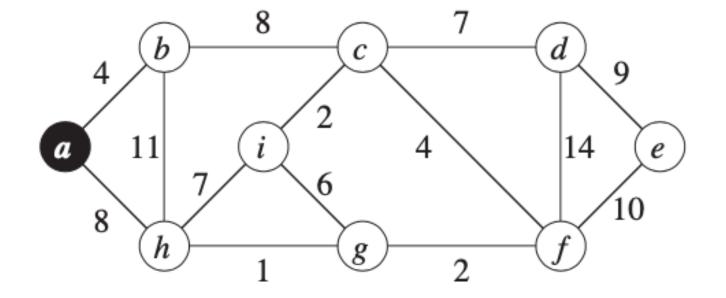
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MST-Prim(G, w, r)
                                                      9
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                   p[v] = u;
                   key[v] = w(u,v);
```



## Kruskal's algorithm

```
MST-KRUSKAL(G, w)

1 A = \emptyset

2 for each vertex v \in G.V

3 MAKE-SET(v)

4 sort the edges of G.E into nondecreasing order by weight w

5 for each edge (u, v) \in G.E, taken in nondecreasing order by weight

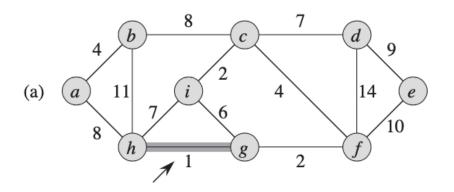
6 if FIND-SET(u) \neq FIND-SET(v)

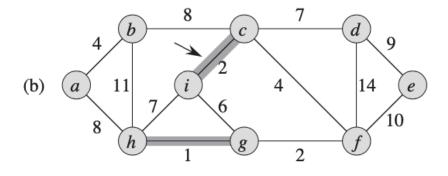
7 A = A \cup \{(u, v)\}

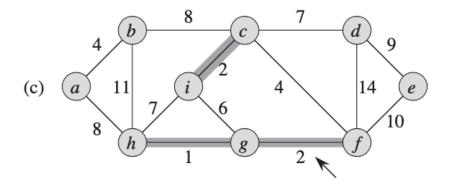
UNION(u, v)

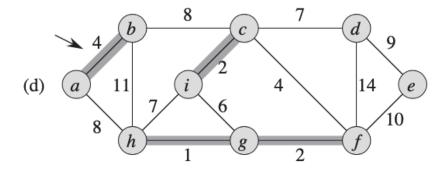
9 return A
```

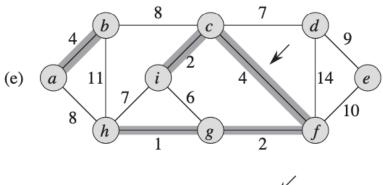
## Kruskal's example

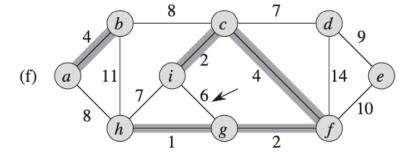


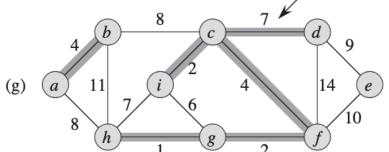


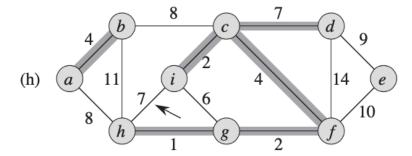


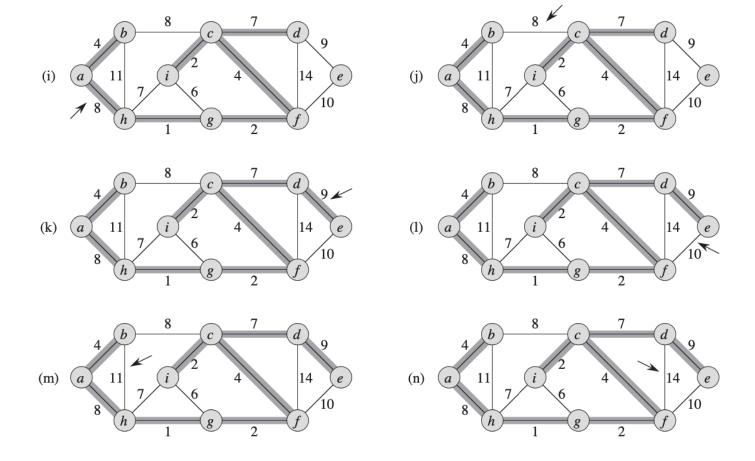












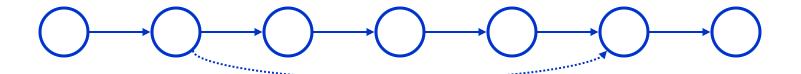
#### Single-Source Shortest Path

## Single-Source Shortest Path

- Problem: given a weighted directed graph G, find the minimum-weight path from a given source vertex s to another vertex v
  - "Shortest-path" = minimum weight
  - Weight of path is sum of edges
  - E.g., a road map: what is the shortest path from Louisville to Memphis?

#### **Shortest Path Properties**

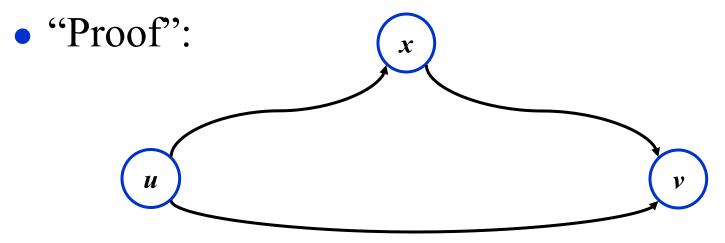
• Again, we have *optimal substructure*: the shortest path consists of shortest subpaths:



- Proof: suppose some subpath is not a shortest path
  - There must then exist a shorter subpath
  - Could substitute the shorter subpath for a shorter path
  - But then overall path is not shortest path. Contradiction

## **Shortest Path Properties**

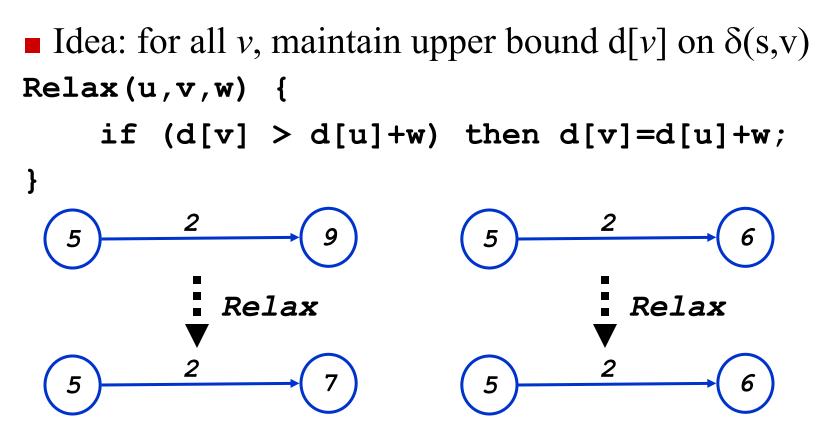
- Define  $\delta(u,v)$  to be the weight of the shortest path from u to v
- Shortest paths satisfy the *triangle inequality*:  $\delta(u,v) \le \delta(u,x) + \delta(x,v)$



This path is no longer than any other path

#### Relaxation

• A key technique in shortest path algorithms is relaxation



## Bellman-Ford Algorithm

```
BellmanFord()
                                       Initialize d[], which
   for each v \in V
                                        will converge to
      d[v] = \infty;
                                       shortest-path value \delta
   d[s] = 0;
   for i=1 to |V|-1
                                       Relaxation:
                                       Make |V|-1 passes,
      for each edge (u,v) \in E
                                       relaxing each edge
          Relax(u,v, w(u,v));
   for each edge (u,v) \in E
                                       Test for solution
                                       Under what condition
      if (d[v] > d[u] + w(u,v))
                                       do we get a solution?
            return "no solution";
```

```
Relax(u,v,w): if (d[v] > d[u]+w) then d[v]=d[u]+w
```

### Bellman-Ford Algorithm

```
BellmanFord()
                                      What will be the
   for each v \in V
                                      running time?
      d[v] = \infty;
   d[s] = 0;
   for i=1 to |V|-1
      for each edge (u,v) \in E
         Relax(u,v, w(u,v));
   for each edge (u,v) \in E
      if (d[v] > d[u] + w(u,v))
            return "no solution";
```

Relax(u,v,w): if (d[v] > d[u]+w) then d[v]=d[u]+w

### Bellman-Ford Algorithm

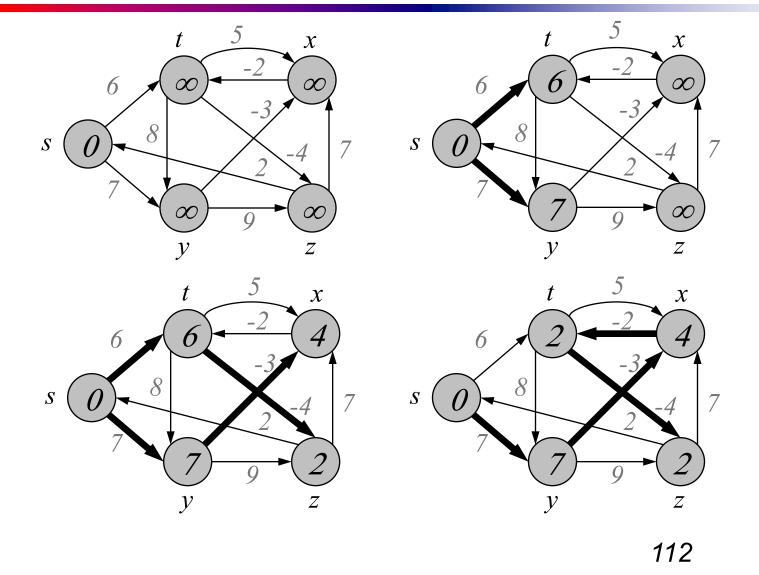
```
BellmanFord()
                                      What will be the
   for each v \in V
                                      running time?
      d[v] = \infty;
                                     A: O(VE)
   d[s] = 0;
   for i=1 to |V|-1
      for each edge (u,v) \in E
         Relax(u,v, w(u,v));
   for each edge (u,v) \in E
      if (d[v] > d[u] + w(u,v))
            return "no solution";
Relax(u,v,w): if (d[v] > d[u]+w) then d[v]=d[u]+w
```

### Bellman-Ford Algorithm

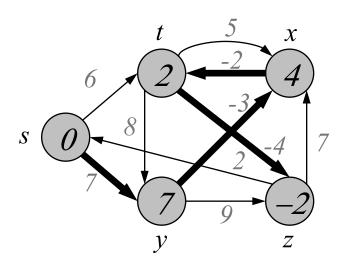
```
BellmanFord()
   for each v \in V
      d[v] = \infty;
   d[s] = 0;
   for i=1 to |V|-1
      for each edge (u,v) \in E
         Relax(u,v, w(u,v));
   for each edge (u,v) \in E
      if (d[v] > d[u] + w(u,v))
            return "no solution";
```

```
Relax(u,v,w): if (d[v] > d[u]+w) then d[v]=d[u]+w
```

# Bellman-Ford Example

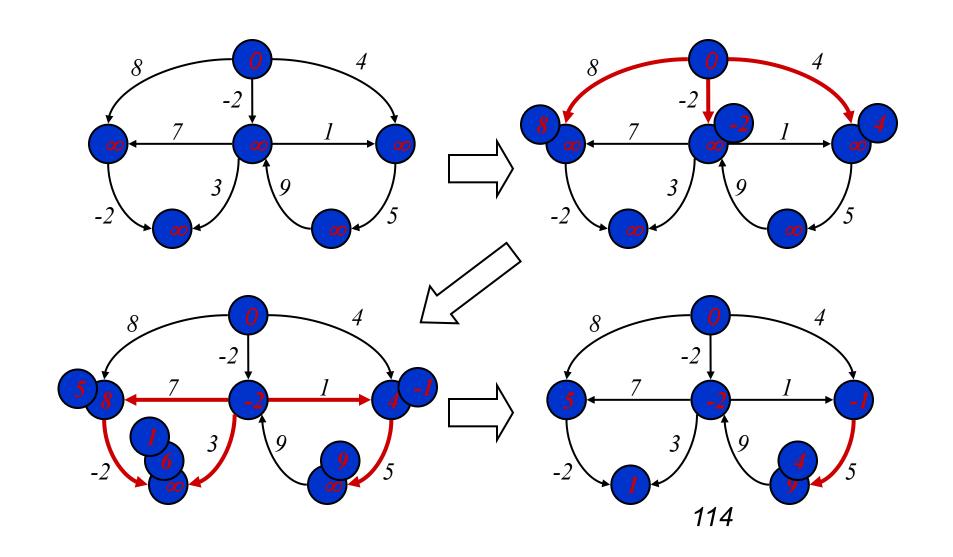


## Bellman-Ford Example



- Bellman-Ford running time:
  - $(|V|-1)|E| + |E| = \Theta(VE)$

# Bellman-Ford Example



#### Dijkstra's algorithm

<u>Dijkstra's algorithm</u> - is a solution to the single-source shortest path problem in graph theory.

Works on both directed and undirected graphs. However, all edges must have nonnegative weights.

Approach: Greedy

Input: Weighted graph G={E,V} and source vertex *v*∈V, such that all edge weights are nonnegative

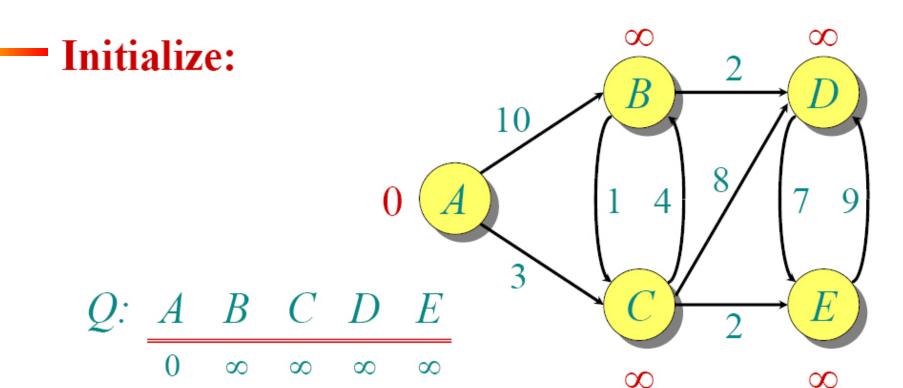
Output: Lengths of shortest paths (or the shortest paths themselves) from a given source vertex *v*∈V to all other vertices

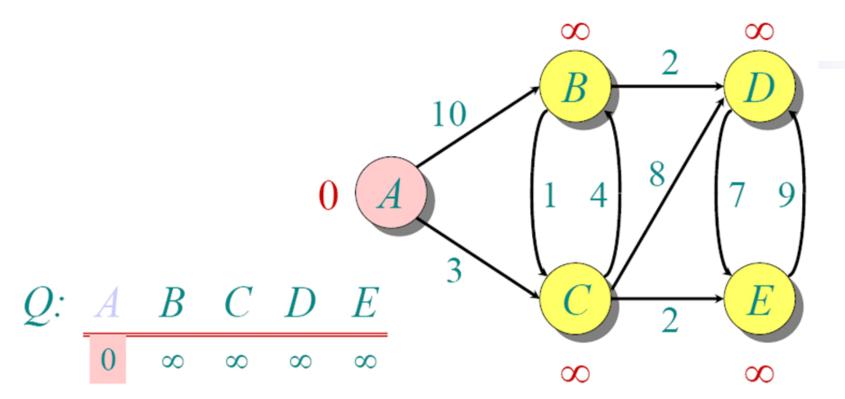
### Dijkstra's algorithm - Pseudocode

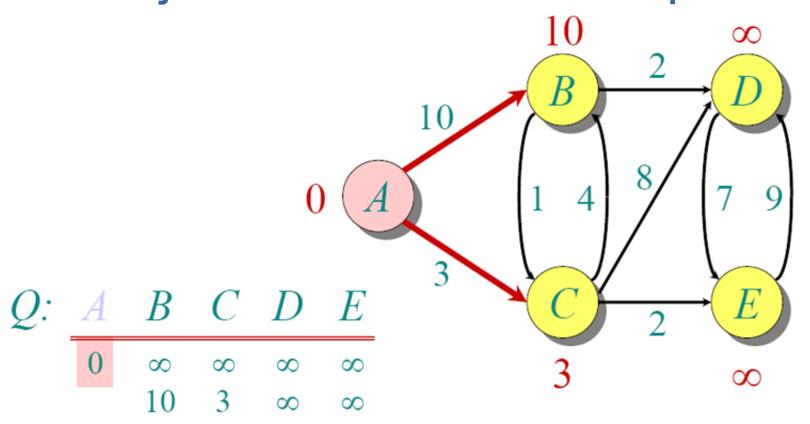
```
dist[s] \leftarrow o
                                              (distance to source vertex is zero)
for all v \in V - \{s\}
     do dist[v] \leftarrow \infty
                                              (set all other distances to infinity)
                                              (S, the set of visited vertices is initially empty)
S \leftarrow \emptyset
                                  (Q, the queue initially contains all vertices)
Q \leftarrow V
while Q \neq \emptyset
                                              (while the queue is not empty)
do u \leftarrow mindistance(Q, dist)
                                              (select the element of Q with the min. distance)
    S \leftarrow S \cup \{u\}
                                              (add u to list of visited vertices)
    for all v \in neighbors[u]
         do if dist[v] > dist[u] + w(u, v)
                                                                     (if new shortest path found)
                 then d[v] \leftarrow d[u] + w(u, v) (set new value of shortest path)
                       (if desired, add traceback code)
return dist
```

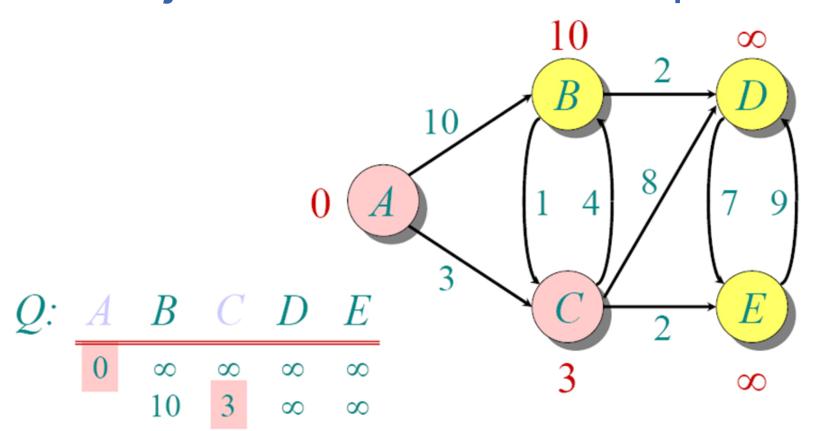
### Dijkstra's Algorithm

- If no negative edge weights, we can beat BF
- Similar to breadth-first search
  - Grow a tree gradually, advancing from vertices taken from a queue
- Also similar to Prim's algorithm for MST
  - Use a priority queue keyed on d[v]

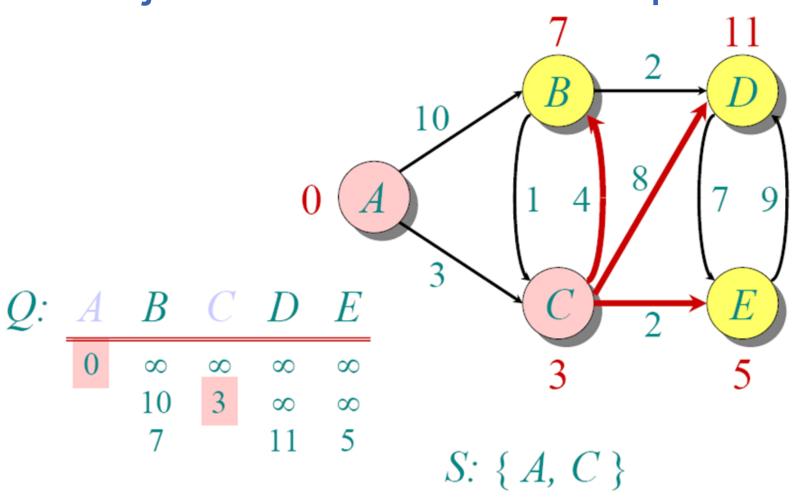


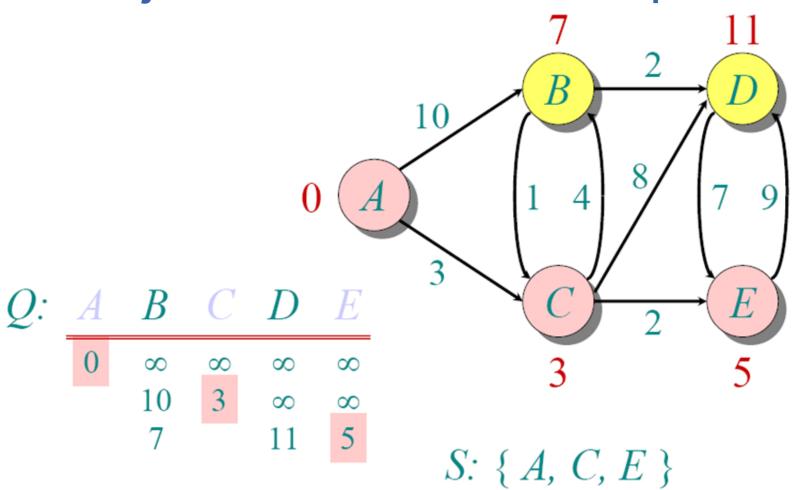


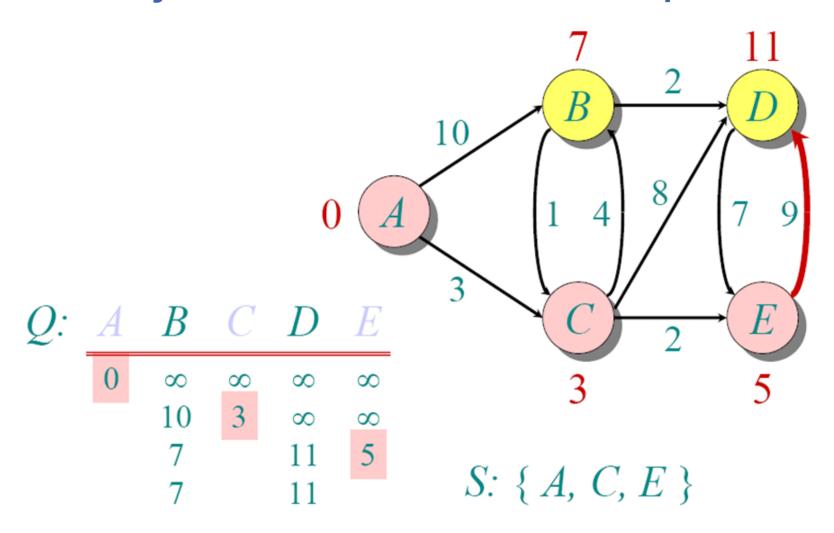


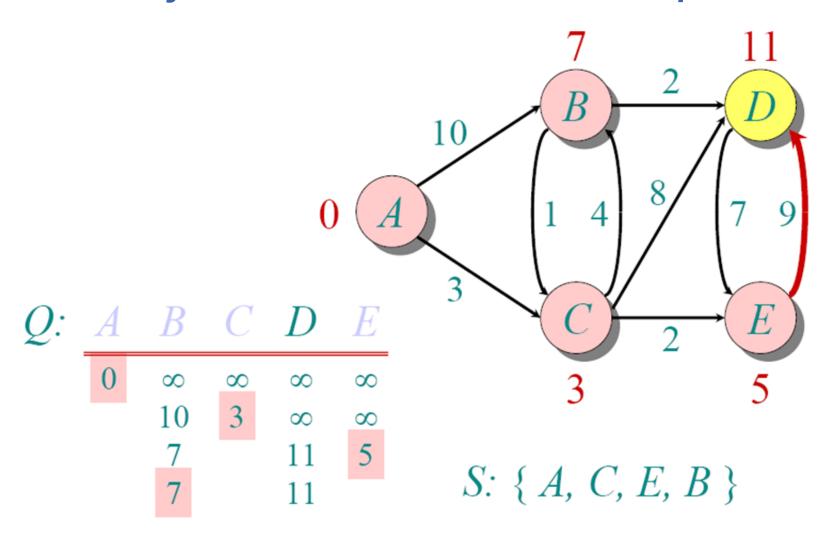


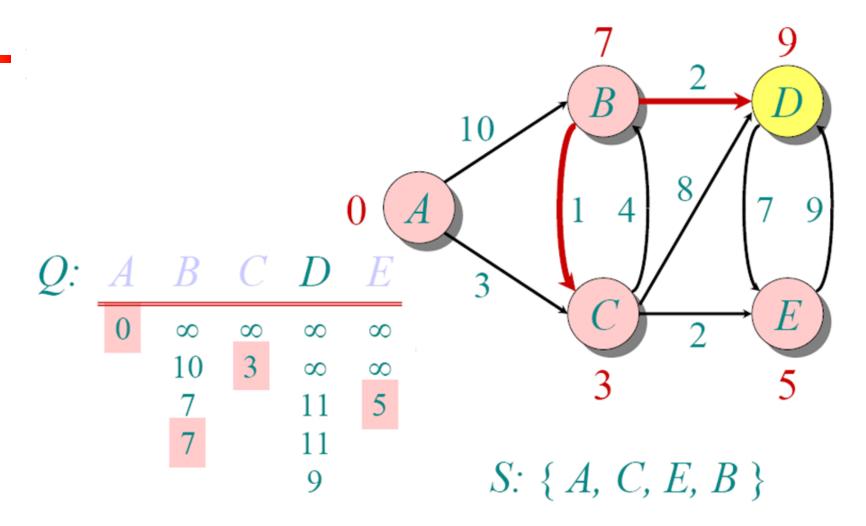
S: { A, C }

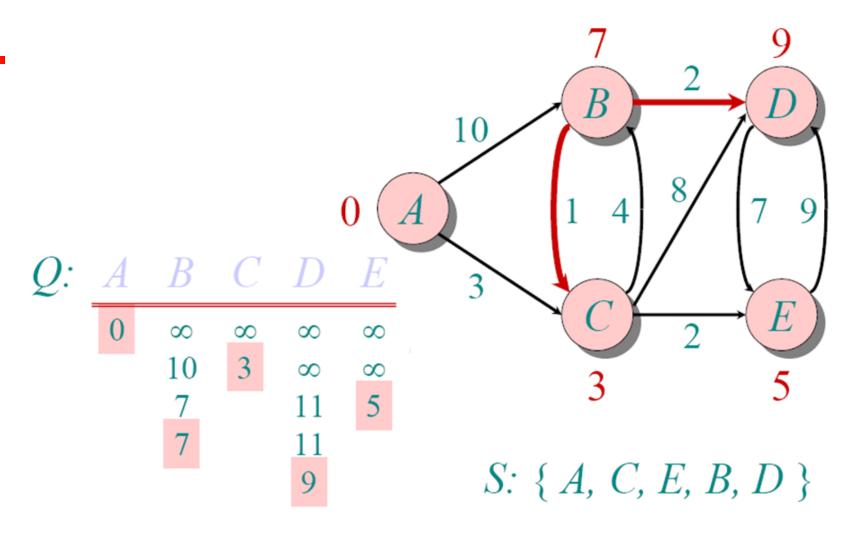












#### Implementations and Running Times

For sparse graphs, or graphs with very few edges and many nodes, it can be implemented more efficiently storing the graph in an adjacency list using a binary heap or priority queue. This will produce a running time of

$$O((|E|+|V|)\log |V|)$$

#### DIJKSTRA'S ALGORITHM - WHY USE IT?

- As mentioned, Dijkstra's algorithm calculates the shortest path to every vertex.
- However, it is about as computationally expensive to calculate the shortest path from vertex *u* to every vertex using Dijkstra's as it is to calculate the shortest path to some particular vertex *v*.
- Therefore, anytime we want to know the optimal path to some other vertex from a determined origin, we can use Dijkstra's algorithm.

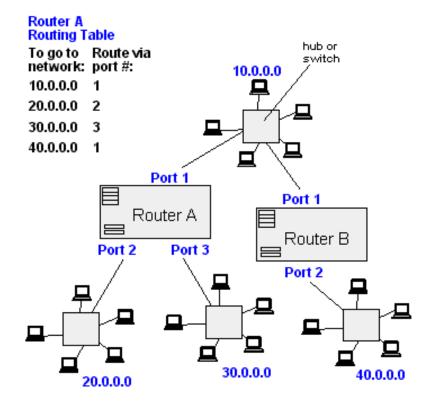
### Applications of Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Traffic Information Systems are most prominent use
- Mapping (Map Quest, Google Maps)
- Routing Systems

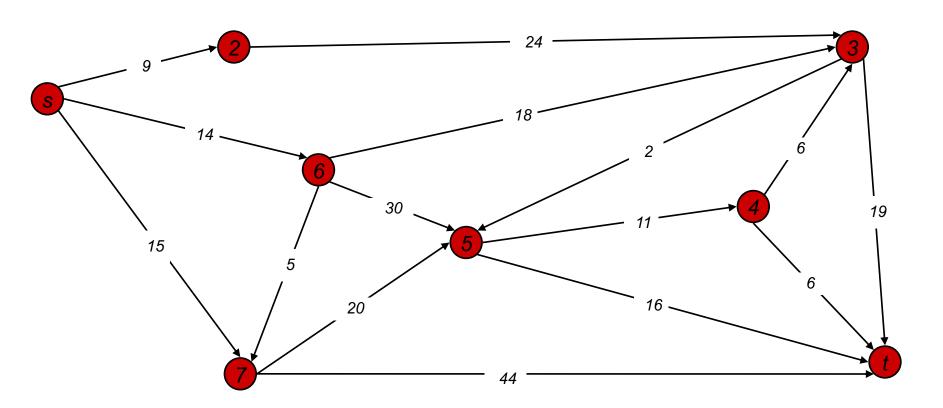
Corbiter Plaza

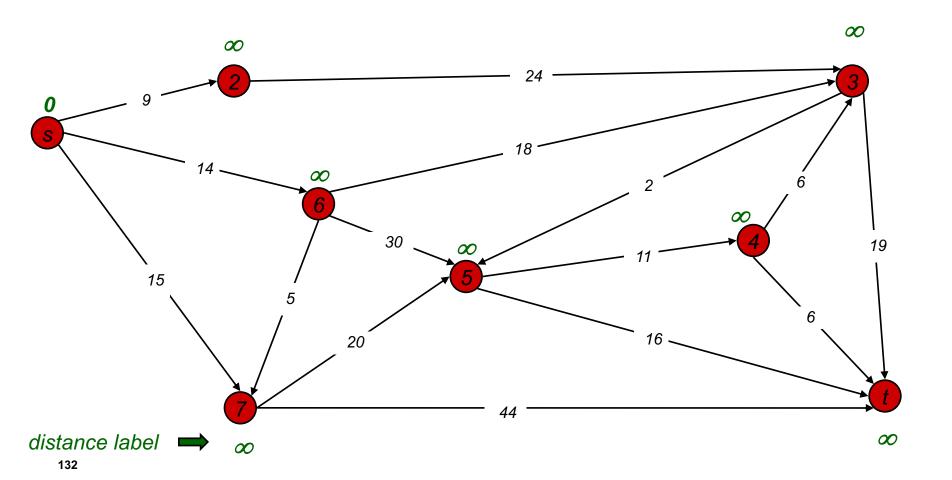
From Computer Desktop Encyclopedia

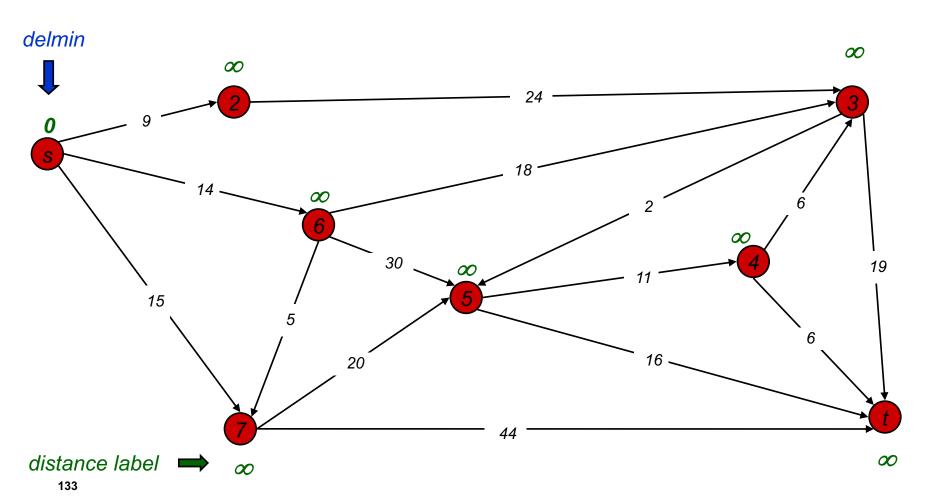
3 1998 The Computer Language Co. Inc.



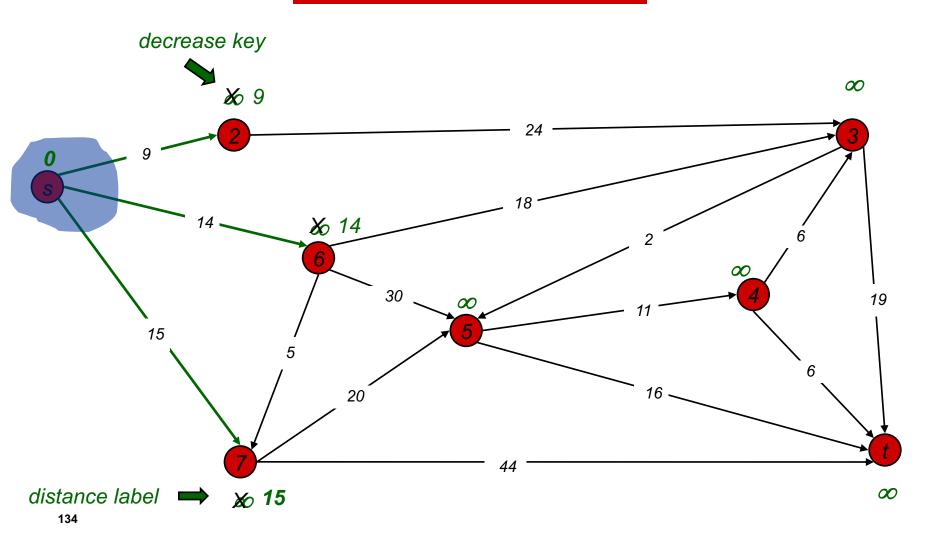
• Find shortest path from s to t.



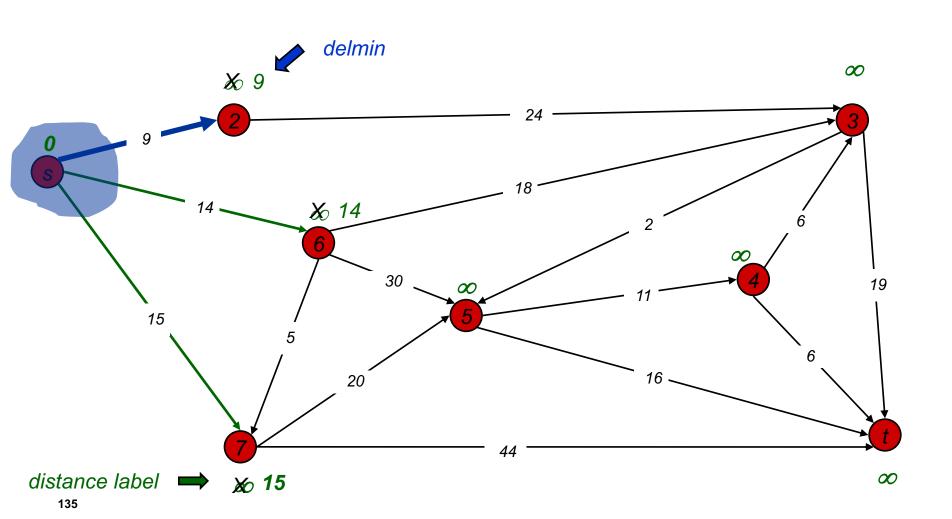




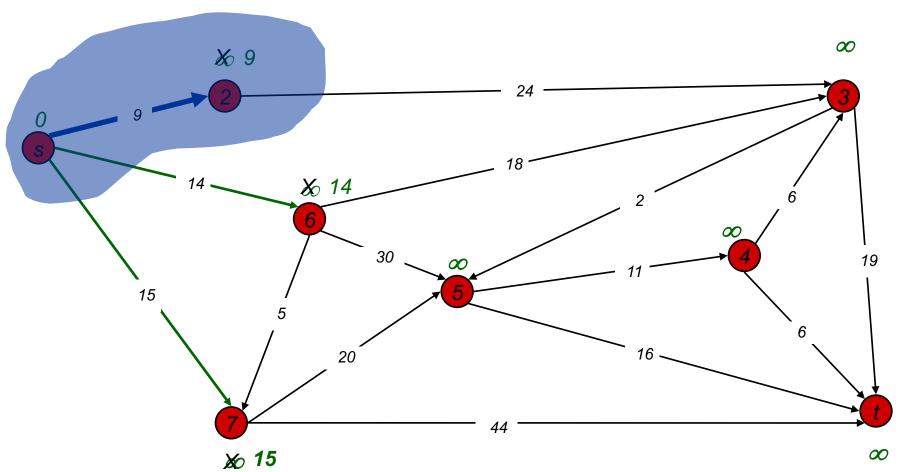
 $S = \{ s \}$  $PQ = \{ 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, t \}$ 



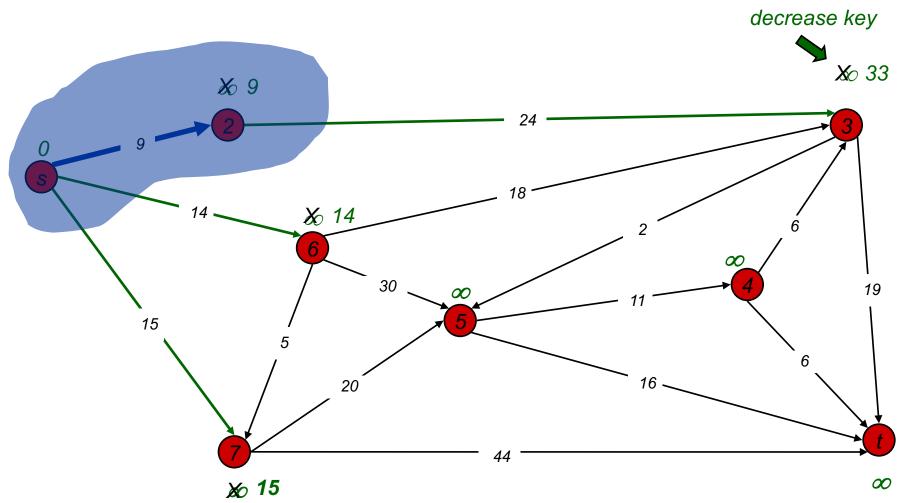
$$S = \{ s \}$$
  
 $PQ = \{ 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, t \}$ 

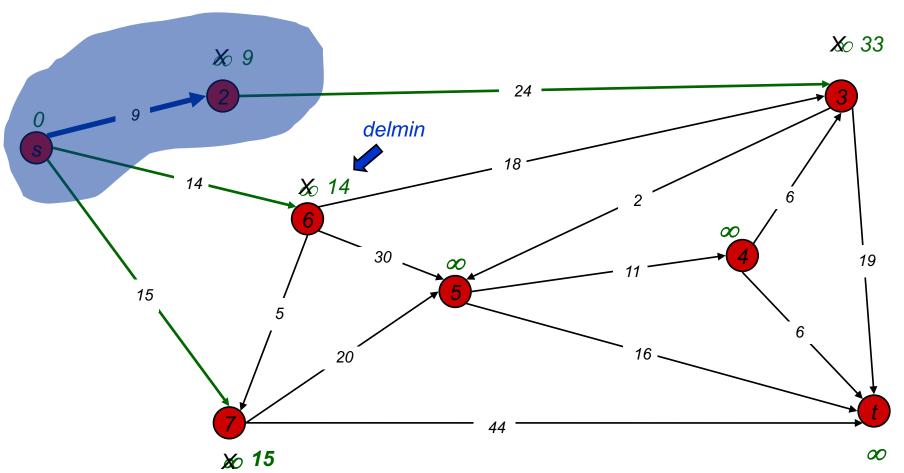


$$S = \{ s, 2 \}$$
  
 $PQ = \{ 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, t \}$ 

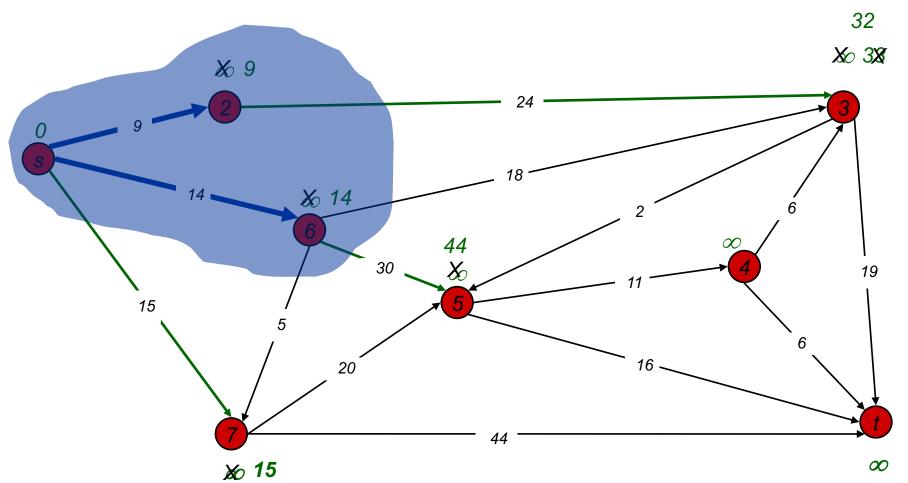


 $S = \{ s, 2 \}$  $PQ = \{ 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, t \}$ 

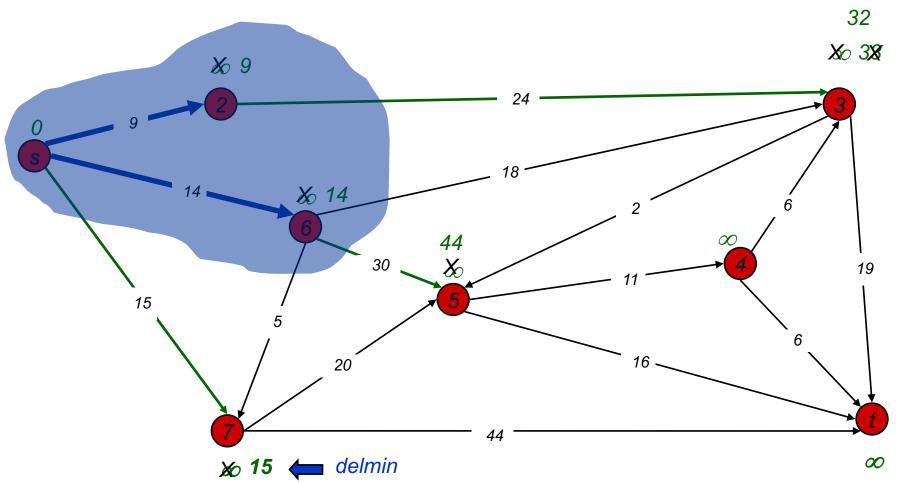




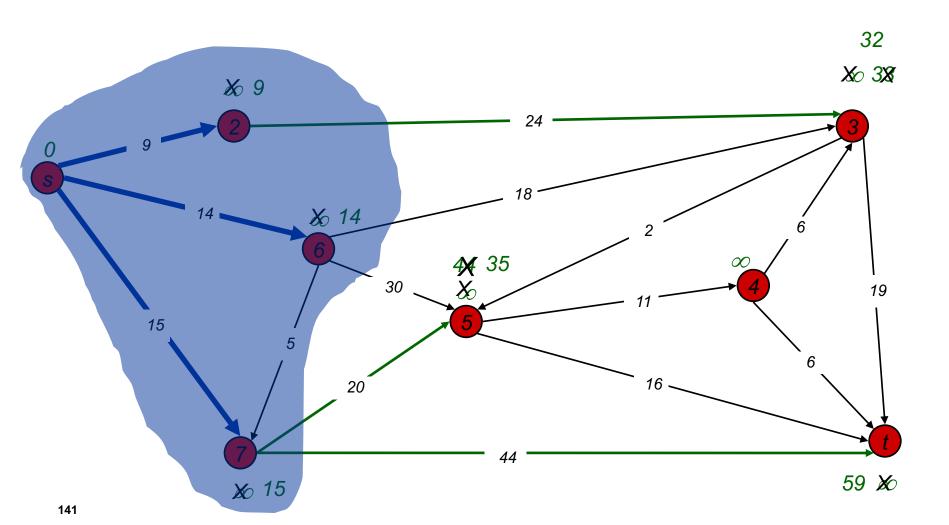
S = { s, 2, 6 } PQ = { 3, 4, 5, 7, t }

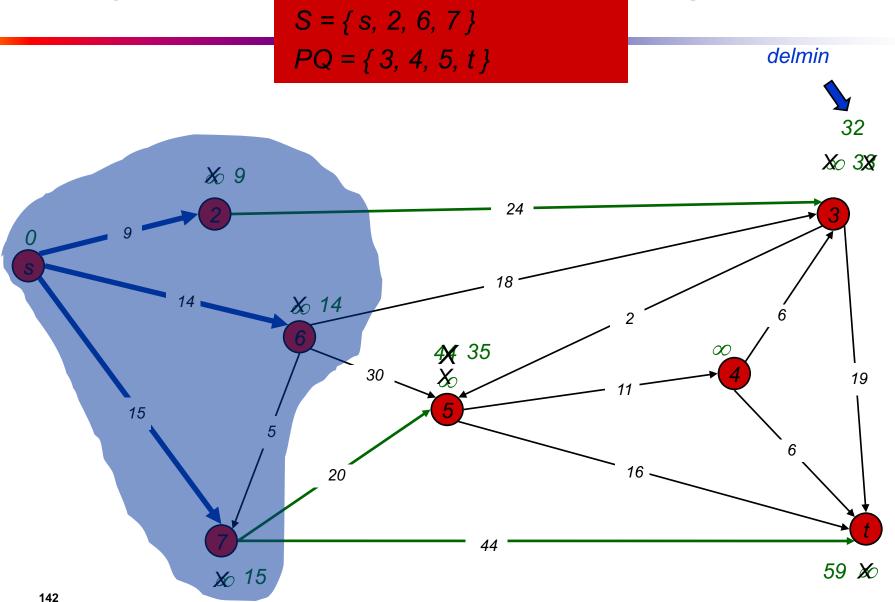


 $S = \{ s, 2, 6 \}$  $PQ = \{ 3, 4, 5, 7, t \}$ 

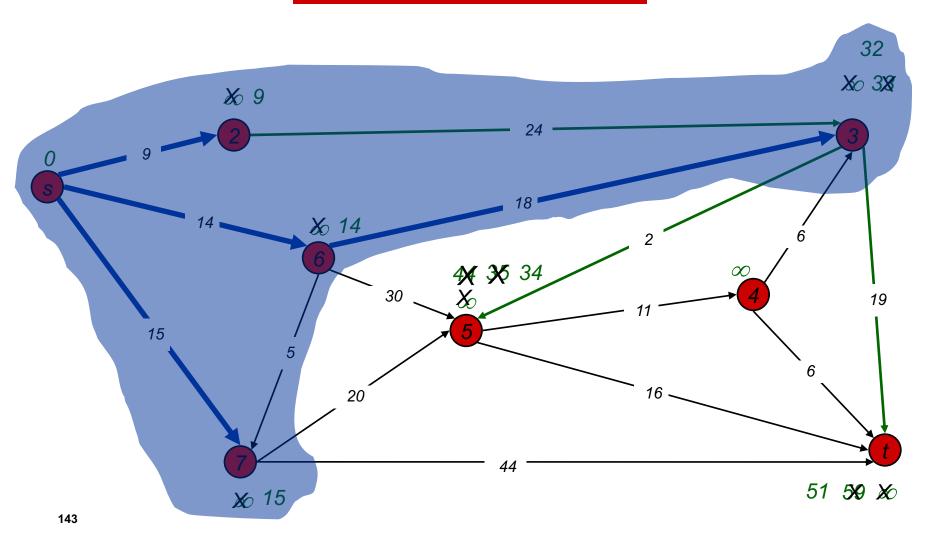


 $S = \{ s, 2, 6, 7 \}$  $PQ = \{ 3, 4, 5, t \}$ 

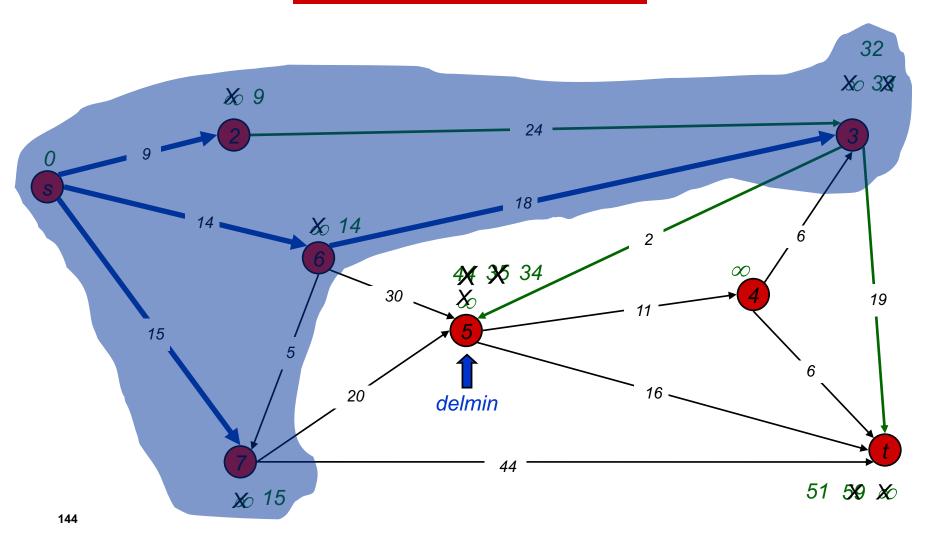




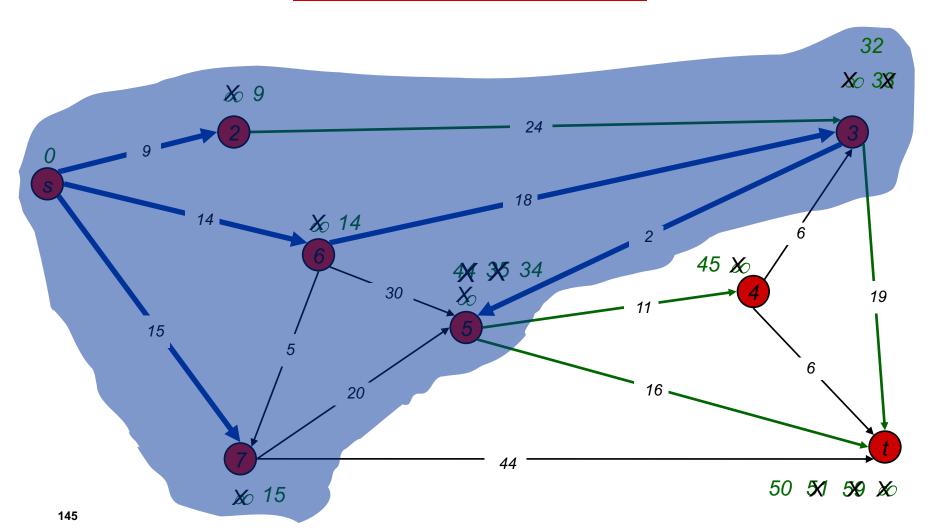
 $S = \{ s, 2, 3, 6, 7 \}$  $PQ = \{ 4, 5, t \}$ 



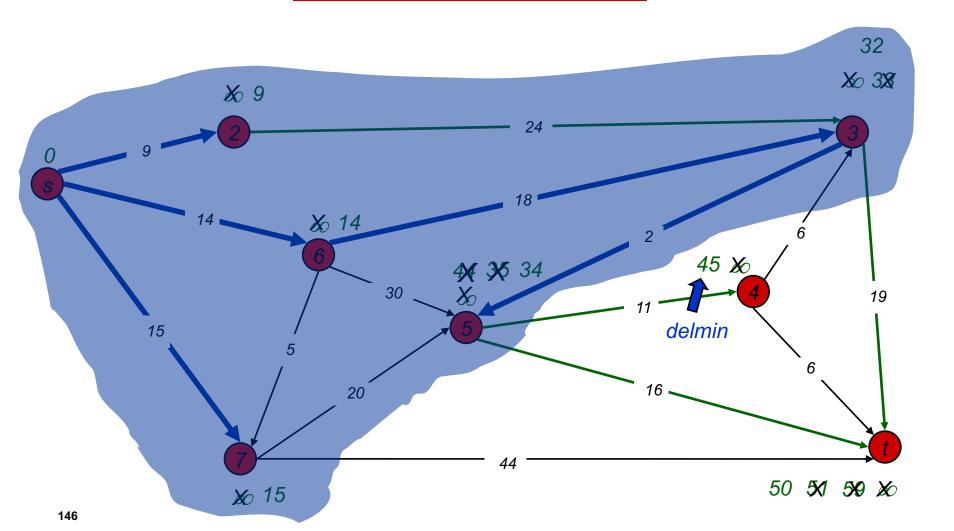
 $S = \{ s, 2, 3, 6, 7 \}$  $PQ = \{ 4, 5, t \}$ 



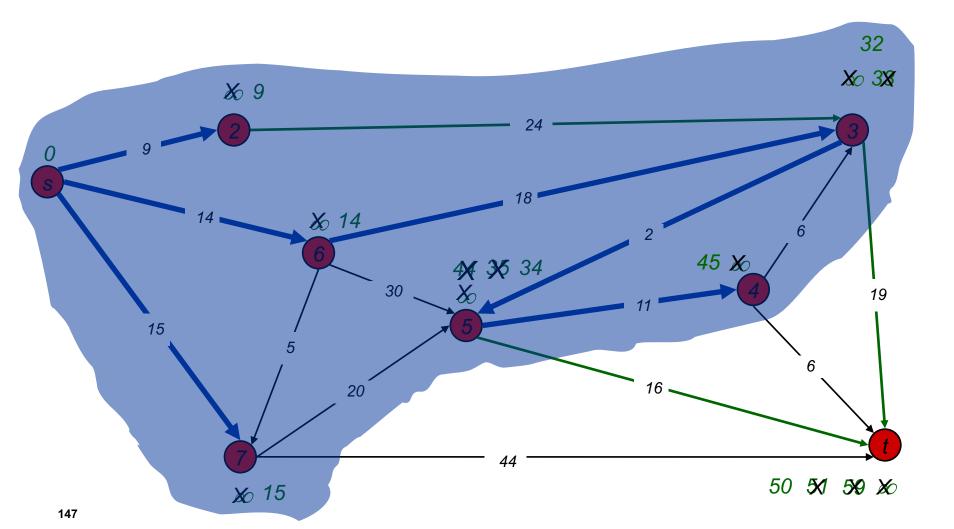
S = { s, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7 } PQ = { 4, t }



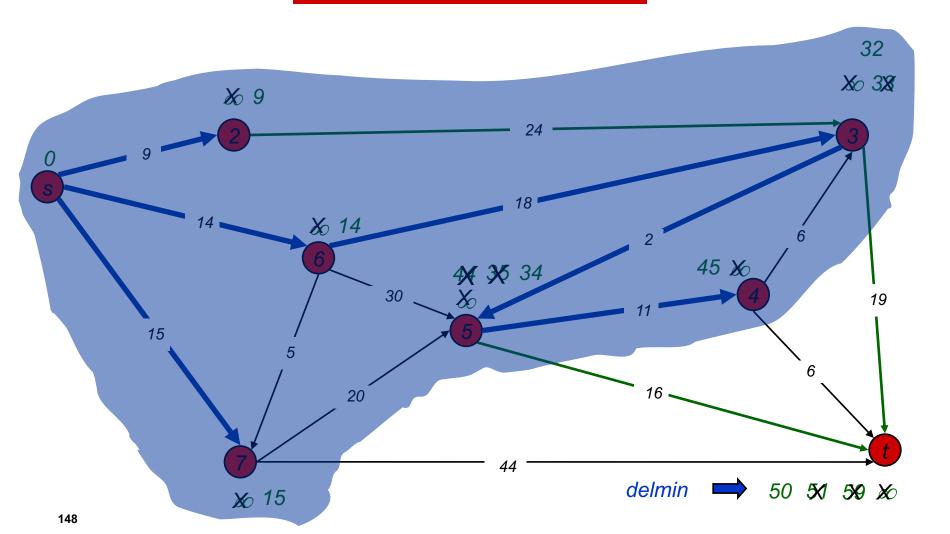
S = { s, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7 } PQ = { 4, t }



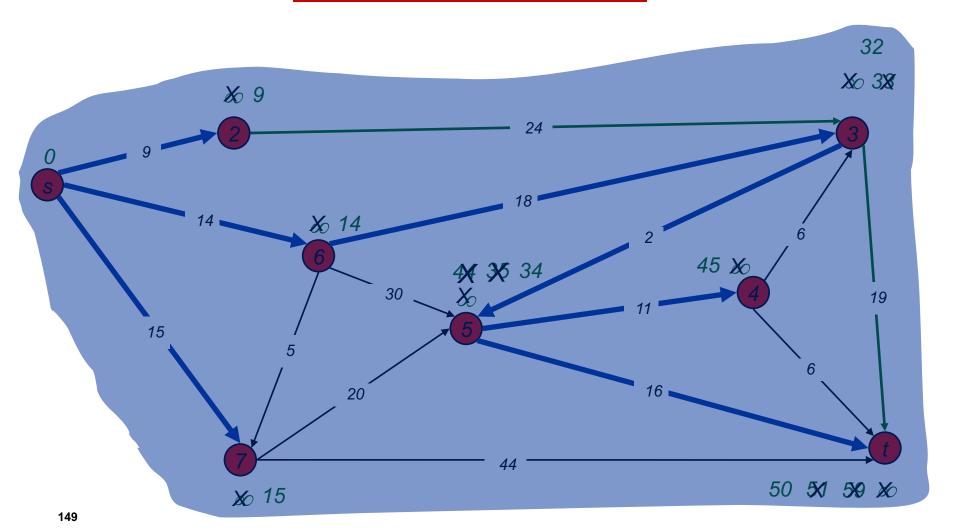
 $S = \{ s, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 \}$  $PQ = \{ t \}$ 



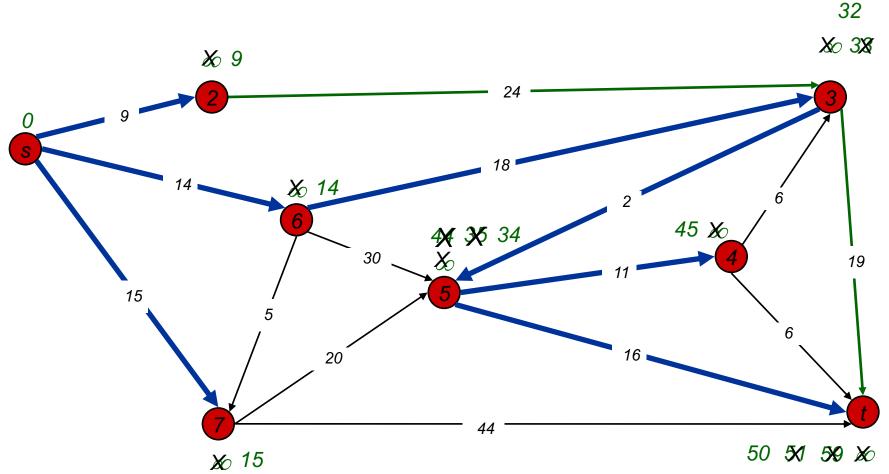
S = { s, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 } PQ = { t }



S = { s, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, t } PQ = { }



S = { s, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, t } PQ = {}



```
Kruskal()
   T = \emptyset;
   for each v \in V
      MakeSet(v);
   sort E by increasing edge weight w
   for each (u,v) \in E (in sorted order)
      if FindSet(u) ≠ FindSet(v)
          T = T \cup \{\{u,v\}\};
          Union(FindSet(u), FindSet(v));
```

```
Run the algorithm:
Kruskal()
                                     19
   T = \emptyset;
                                 25
                                            5
   for each v \in V
                                      13
                         21
      MakeSet(v);
   sort E by increasing edge weight w
   for each (u,v) \in E (in sorted order)
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                          2?
                                     19
   T = \emptyset;
                                 25
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